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ABSTRACT

Papers in this yearbook cover a variety of topics in the field of language arts instruction, such as creative writing instruction, reading assessment from a Whole Language perspective, journal writing, and strategies for modifying commercial reading materials. Papers and their authors are as follows: (1) "Let's Get Creative about Creative Writing in Language Arts Methods Courses" (B. J. Bush); (2) "Journals with A Purpose: Reading, Writing, and Thinking" (K. S. Daves and M. E. Jones); (3) "Making Curriculum Connections: The Centrality of Language Arts" (J. K. Hultquist); (4) "Relationships of Children's Stories to Reading Achievement: A Longitudinal Perspective Grades One to Six" (M. Ice); (5) "Reading Lesson Redesign: Strategies and Guidelines for Modifying Commercial Reading Materials" (S. Macaul); (6) "Multicultural Education for Reading and Language Arts Educators" (L. P. Rivera); (7) "The Developmental Growth of Meaning Vocabulary as Measured by Tests of Listening and Reading Vocabulary" (L. V. Rodenborn); (8) "Literary Gaps Invite Creative Interaction" (J. Watson); (9) "A Report of Attitudes of Secondary Education Students Enrolled in a Required Reading in the Content Areas Course" (R. J. Weimer); (10) "From Product to Process: Reading Assessment from a Whole Language Perspective" (J. W. Woodley); and (11) "The Low Reading Group: An Instructional and Social Dilemma" (L. M. Schell). (MM)

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National Reading and Language Arts Educators' Conference Yearbook

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National

Reading and Language Arts

Educators' Conference

Yearbook

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Let's Get Creative About Creative Writing in Language Arts Methods Courses

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"Oh, yes, I teach creative writing - we write once a week - regularly!" "I don't have time for all that writing, I have to cover the material in my text." "The children don't like creative writing - they get so bored." Comments such as these are heard in elementary schools in every state. This attitude about writing is a leading contributor to the criticism from the general public. Harsh cries of dissatisfaction against public schools are heard as the general public criticizes the downward trend in the quality of writing demonstrated by students.

Gray and Myers (1978) report a two-year study of the four-year decline of verbal scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) which revealed several possible causes of the trend varying from the influence of television to Watergate. One cause of poor written communication skills which educators cannot deny is the manner in which writing has been approached in the public school systems. For years, educators have taught written communication skills primarily by instinct and intuition, operating without the benefit of sound research findings. Teachers need to become more aware of the importance of using research results (Graves and Hansen, 1983; Harste, Burke and Woodward, 1981; Newman, 1985; Smith, 1981) so that writing instruction can be grounded on a solid foundation of reliability (Vilott, 1982).

In light of the dilemma faced by public school educators and educators in teacher training institutions, the traditional assignment, single draft, evaluation approach to writing instruction must be examined with a critical eye. This traditional approach has placed the emphasis of importance on the final product. Students have not learned the process of writing with this stagnant approach, rather, they have learned to go through the motions of writing. The act of using a process to teach writing skills is an effective alternative approach. With the writing process, students moves through several steps as they compose (Emig, 1971; Graves and Hansen, 1983). Steps vary in number with each model but in general, follow a five step process: prewriting, rough draft, revision, editing, and publishing or sharing. We expect elementary teachers to teach using the staged-process approach, but how do we prepare teachers in training to meet this challenge? Many times language arts methods instructors simply show a video or show the process stages on an overhead, discuss how to implement the

process in the classroom and drop the topic moving on to a discussion of book reporting or the strengths and struggles of teaching grammar. The writing process must come alive for the teacher in training if we have any expectation of the process being carried over to the elementary classroom when the teacher is in the field.

The following comments are suggestions the author uses in a language arts methods course to encourage the use of the process.

Prewriting, the first stage in the process, may be the most critical for the author. Murray (1982) states that upward to 70% of time devoted to writing should be spent in this step. Students choose their own topics, decide to whom they are writing, and determine the purpose for the writing. At this stage in the writing process, it is critically important that the teacher be creative. Creativity does not necessarily mean giving the students "fail-safe" writing topics, but rather urging the students through discussion, experiences, brainstorming, etc., to develop their own topics (Hoskisson and Tompkins, 1987). The following suggestions may prove to be helpful in this critical task:

1. Creating a writing environment. Teacher attitude may be the most significant factor in creating an environment where students want to express themselves in written form. Teachers should have writing time every day, and students should grow to view this activity as a natural, daily experience in the classroom. If teachers <u>expect</u> the students to produce writing every day, the students will respond.

   Students in language arts methods courses should also experience writing every day. Journals or log entries are a natural activity to encourage this daily writing. We have the luxury of having a laboratory school housed in the same building as the College of Education. It is, therefore, quite easy to assign observation time for the students and conduct an interactive dialogue through the journals. Students write what they wish in the journal, thus providing an opportunity to explore various concepts or ways of expressing their thoughts. The teacher has the opportunity to observe and react throughout the process, not simply with a final product. Often thoughts or concepts initiated in the journals become the primary thrust of a story, poem, or essay.

   As is true in the elementary classroom, instructors should stress quantity of writing before quality. It is important that students set the habit of putting pen to paper. In the elementary classroom, attention to errors in spelling, grammar and sentence structure will tend to yield negative attitudes about writing. When the

desired quantity of writing is being produced, the teacher should begin the editing process by working on one or two errors at a time until the student overcomes the errors. Red marks on papers are overwhelming and tend to make the student revert back to a short, stilted and unimaginative writing style. Modeling this technique of reinforcing selected skills can be accomplished as college papers are turned in as well.

Teachers should not expect themselves to read everything the students write. Instead, each day randomly sample papers to read and make significant comments. Students do not know when their papers will be selected and this is therefore more productive than attempting to read on a scheduled basis.

2. Brainwriting (Proett and Gill, 1986). An alternative to brainstorming which may be varied to suit the purpose of the writing activity. Basically, the class is divided into small groups. Each student generates ideas on the main topic and lists them on a sheet of paper. Papers are then shifted within the group and another student reads the list and adds additional thoughts. After sufficient time has lapsed, the students are allowed to combine and organize the thoughts as a nucleus for a group paper, individual paper, or discussion. We attempt this activity regularly in the methods course, again modeling the technique for future use.

As students work though the stages of the writing process, the time comes when they must develop the first draft committing their thoughts and ideas to paper. They must think again about their audience, their purpose for writing, as well as their rhetorical stance, form, structure, grammar, spelling, and content.

Creative ideas which may prove helpful during these stages of the writing process include:

1. Peer editors. Students relate to the suggestions and responses of their peers because their opinions are those which matter to them. Because they relate to peers, students feel the papers are more than "just" assignments. The writer sees the effect of his/her composition, senses the effect it could have with revision, and experiences a writer/audience relationship. The peer editors benefit as well. As they listen, read, and edit a piece of writing from another student, they learn how to make their own writing more effective (Proett and Gill, 1986).

   Proett and Gill (1986) further state that first experiences with peer editing may be somewhat disorganized. They suggest that teachers should not be

discouraged if:

a. some students don't want to share their papers with other students. This may be an indication of the students' lack of confidence in their writing ability. Do whole-class response to papers initially in order for students to become accustomed to the process. Then, if some students are still reluctant, work with them alone or with only one other student until they feel more comfortable with this process.

b. some students make superficial or unhelpful comments in the editing groups. Whole-class response to papers will help to illustrate and underline the importance of specific, thoughtful comments. Class discussions of the characteristics of a helpful response will help to focus attention on what is expected in small groups.

c. some students fool around in the group and ignore the work at hand. Sit with a troublesome group and demonstrate response behavior for them. Point out the positive evidence of revision (or the damage caused by its lack) in their papers. Disbanding the group is also a possibility.

The students will learn the value and pleasure of editing groups, and by midyear, editing groups should be running smoothly, efficiently, and effectively (p. 24).

At the college level, peer editors are assigned for the course. Students are expected to use their partner every time a writing assignment is attempted. A great deal of positive feedback has been received regarding the sharing of thoughts and editing procedures. Students understand through first hand experience how to implement the procedure in the elementary classroom.

2. Exploring various forms of writing. Students are surrounded with various forms of writing everyday. Limited sample forms which could be used by the students include:
   a. modern music
   b. poetry
   c. advertisements
   d. want ads
   e. editorials
   f. story problems in math
   g. postcards

h. telegrams
i. cartoons
j. folk and fairy tales

Suggested activities for both elementary students and college students include:

1. Read a pattern book such as the book by Bill Martin Jr. entitled Brown Bear, Brown Bear (1970) and allow the students to produce a story after the book pattern. Creative responses might include "Black cat, black cat, what do you see? I see a scary witch looking at me."

2. Have Lady Bug, Lady Bug discuss in written conversation the current flying conditions with the Cow that jumped over the moon.

3. Ask the students to bring in a wrapper from a favorite candy bar. Glue the wrapper on a paper and write the recipe for making the candy bar below the wrapper.

4. Ask the students if they know that children in Vietnam write on brown paper bags instead of paper - let them try it. This could be an excellent anticipatory set for a multicultural unit.

5. Inform the students that they have just inherited a restaurant from Great Uncle Willie. They are to redecorate and redesign the restaurant to fit their tastes. Include the floor plan, type of furniture, a copy of the menu, name of the restaurant, application blank for employees, the specialty of the house, and an advertisement for T.V. radio or newspaper.

Eventually, all authors are ready for the final stage of the writing experience - sharing or publication. This stage gives a feeling of importance or substance to the hours spent in the writing process. A simple letter grade is not sufficient for establishing value and permanence. Book binding and library placement, a letter to the editor allowing for interaction with the audience, reading a story to a younger grade level, publishing in a magazine or your author's corner, keeping a writing folder to demonstrate growth, etc. can all contribute to the closure of a particular writing activity.

In the language arts methods class, each college student is assigned to an elementary child in the laboratory school. The writing partners brainstorm about topics, write first drafts, edit and bind a book using the library binding technique. Each partner is encouraged to make their own copy, illustrate and bind the text. The child's copy could then be catalogued and put on the library shelf for circulation while the college student retains a copy for

future use. This is a time consuming but valuable activity as the child has the experience of writing a book and the teacher in training has the opportunity to see the process at work. Time and time again, this activity has been the high-point of the course evaluation by students.

The elementary classroom teacher, the teacher in training and the methods instructor must remember that:

> "Writing is a unitary process that is much more than the exercise of a series of previously learned, previously practiced subskills. Writing involves remembering, planning, choosing, ordering, spelling, and the physical act of writing, all at once. It requires the conversion of idea to language to graphic symbol, all simultaneously. Such a complex activity requires much more than a few minutes of instruction followed by a practice worksheet; writing ability develops slowly through much guided experience with the forms, resources, and restrictions of the language. Providing students with that experience and helping them through it becomes the essence of the English or language arts classroom. And it takes much patient effort, much diverse activity (Proett and Gill, p. 11)."

It make great sense that we as methods instructors must be as creative as we expect our students to be as we discuss, massage and implement the writing process in our courses. By allowing teacher's in training to experience the writing process, college instructors reinforce the old adage - students remember what they do!

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Journals With a Purpose: Reading, Writing, and Thinking

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In recent years the field of education has experienced a writing explosion. Professional journals are overflowing with articles encouraging teachers to involve their students in the writing process. National reports echo the same encouragement. Even methods texts are beginning to suggest the integration of writing into the traditional reading currirulum.

On college campuses this writing explosion is further evidenced by the increased use of journal writing as a class requirement. One student recently interviewed was required to use journals in three courses during one quarter. These included:

1. a two-part journal requiring both structured and unstructured student responses to course content. Instructor feedback was provided on a weekly basis.

2. a structured journal requiring the student to respond daily to the same three questions. Instructor feedback was provided periodically.

3. an unstructured personal response journal requiring an identified number of student entries by the end of the quarter. Instructor feedback was not given.

Discussions of returning teachers doing summer graduate work reflected the frequent use of journals in their classrooms and clinical assignments. However, when asked "why" they were using journals with their students they exhibited difficulty articulating specific purposes for initiating journal activities.

When asked to think about this question from a diagnostic perspective, these teachers began to consider why and how journal writing could be used

to meet the instructional needs of their students. They came to the conclusion that there were many reasons for using journals but that the journal format must be intentionally designed to facilitate specific instructional needs and goals. Consequently, they realized that the personal journal most of them had been using was not always the most appropriate or effective type of journal format.

The same dilemma exists at the university level in terms of selecting the appropriate journal format to most effectively achieve desired objectives. In summary, regardless of the level of instruction it is crucial to consider instructional needs and goals when implementing and designing journal assignments.

After a brief review of a variety of journal formats and the purposes they are intended to serve, this article will present a journal format that has been successfully used to facilitate instructional objectives in undergraduate reading methods classes. Based on this information the reader should be able to select and/or modify a journal format that will most effectively facilitate desired goals and objectives.

PERSONAL JOURNALS

If the instructor's purposes are to provide a nonthreatening experience with writing, to build students' confidence in their ability to communicate and express themselves in writing, and to encourage students to perceive themselves as writers, personal journals may provide the most appropriate format. Personal journals are generally unstructured. The students choose the topics they write about as well as the amount and style.

READING PROCESS JOURNALS

Research on metacognition by Stewart and Ebo and others has indicated that "once readers know when they do or do not understand text, they can use strategies to resolve comprehension" (Stewart and Ebo, 1983). Therefore the purpose of this journal is to encourage students to think about the process of reading and how they go about it. When assigning a reading process journal, the instructor tells the students that to improve

their reading it is important to think about what is happening when they read. The students are told to record their awareness of the reading process in their journals.

Nist and Diehl in their text Developing Textbook Thinking have suggested posing specific questions to which the students should respond in their journals. Such questions include:

a. Could you concentrate? If not, why do you think concentration was a problem?

b. Was the reading easy to understand? What made it easy or difficult?

c. How was the article/chapter organized?

d. How difficult was the vocabulary?

e. How much did the length of the article affect your reading? (Nist & Diehl, 1985)

By focusing the students' attention on the process of reading, they will begin to identify and monitor their personal reading habits and strategies.

WRITING PROCESS JOURNALS

A writing process journal is appropriate to provide a metacognitive focus for the student on the process of writing. In this journal format, students describe where they are with a particular piece of writing, what has happened thus far, and how they want the piece to continue. They also identify stumbling blocks encountered in the writing process in order to better cope with them. Personal insights regarding the piece of writing itself or their feelings about the topic are also recorded in the writing process journal (Wrobleski, 1985).

LEARNING PROCESS JOURNALS

Increased reading comprehension (Fitzgerald, 1983) and increased success in school (Hounsell, 1979) have been found to correlate highly with a metacognitive focus on the learning process. Increased personal responsibility for learning has also been associated with developing an

understanding of one's process of learning (Hoffman, 1983). In an effort to help students develop a metacognitive focus on the learning process in the classroom this journal format may be the most effective.

With the learning process journal the students are asked to write about anything that happens during the class period in an effort to help them understand what it means to be a student and what skills and attitudes they will need to be successful. Responses are focused on such aspects as whether or not they participated and why; whether or not they were able to pay attention and why; whether the class discussion was easy or difficult to understand; and whether or not they were able to take appropriate notes. An evaluation of strategies for preparing for and taking a test are encouraged before, immediately following, and after a grade is received on a test (Hoffman, 1983).

STUDY SKILLS JOURNALS

In a Reading/Study Skills class the instructor may want to encourage students to examine their understanding and application of the strategies and skills being taught. The research on the benefits of metacognition would indicate a study skills journal to be an appropriate and effective format for this purpose.

In a study skills journal students are asked to discuss and demonstrate their understanding of and ablility to use a skill or strategy to which they have recently been introduced. They are to reflect on whether or not they find a particular skill or strategy useful in other classes and why. They further comment on whether or not the use of the skill appears to affect and improve their academic success and if they are able to apply the skill or strategy outside the classroom environment.

SUMMARY JOURNALS

Requiring students to reconstruct and organize an author's message in some form (paragraph, web, outline, structured overview, etc.) has been demonstrated to facilitate comprehension and retention of text information.

If the instructor's intent is to facilitate comprehension and retention of text material, then a summary journal is one appropriate format. Encouraging students to reread their summaries to determine if what they have written makes sense and expresses their understanding, further enhances comprehension and retention of the material (Nist and Diehl, 1985).

DOUBLE-ENTRY JOURNALS

To encourage students to go beyond the mere collection of information and to encourage them to reflect upon their personal interpretation of the author's/instructor's meaning, a double-entry journal format can be used. Applicable across the curriculum, this format consists of the student's factual notations on the left side of the page and more personal reflections on the right side. The notations focus on specific items, ideas, passages, or quotations that are personally intriguing to the student. In the righthand column, the student analyzes and reflects upon the personal meaning of the information recorded on the left (Wrobleski, 1985).

RESPONSE JOURNALS

Response journals are designed to provide students with an increased sense of self-direction and control over their learning and to encourage integration of readings, discussions, and experiences. This format also stimulates students to rethink and respond to what they are learning and thereby increases active involvement with all aspects of their learning experiences.

Similar to the personal journal in that the students are provided with a nonthreatening format through which to express their opinions, a response journal format focuses the students' attention on the text, classroom discussions, field experiences, and outside readings. As opposed to the double-entry journal in which the students reflect upon specific pieces of information, the response journal allows a more global, integrated response.

As can be seen there are many journal formats which serve a variety of purposes, thus emphasizing the need to clarify purposes before selecting or designing the format. The following

of taking the time to read and respond to the comments of the students, the instructor indicates a genuine interest in and value of the students' opinions. Knowing their opinions and their ability to think independently are valued, encourages students to formulate and more actively examine what they believe. This increased awareness results in the ability to better articulate and justify those beliefs.

Reading and responding to the students' unstructured and structured comments provides the instructor with a nonthreatening personal forum for individualizing instruction in the college classroom. Responding provides the opportunity to clarify any misconceptions an individual student may have about the content. Instructors can also use rhetorical questions to redirect the students' thinking by asking them to consider other perspectives. In contrast, instructors can also reinforce entries reflecting critical thinking, integration, and application of ideas, experiences, and concepts by responding with personal, positive comments.

In the process of reading and interpreting the instructor's responses students will likely reread their initial responses thereby re-encountering the information and concepts. Such re-encountering not only facilitates retention, but also encourages reconsideration of the concepts. This process of individual instructor-student interaction encourages the depth of integration and understanding of the course content that we were seeking.

FREQUENCY OF RESPONSE

After the decision to respond was made, the question of frequency of response was addressed. Based on conversations with students and experiences with journals assigned over a ten-week quarter, we decided that weekly responses would most practically and effectively achieve our purposes. In the past, responding more frequently did not allow the students enough think time to integrate experiences, classroom discussions and assigned reading. It also overloaded the instructor in terms of the time needed to read and give quality feedback. Responding any less frequently appeared to decrease the students' enthusiasm for the task and their motivation to give quality responses.

portion of this article describes the process by which two instructors of undergraduate reading methods classes designed a journal format to meet specific instructional objectives.

CLARIFYING THE PURPOSES

There were many reasons for deciding to assign a journal in our classes. We wanted to increase the students' active involvement with the text; to increase the students' sense of control and self-direction over the learning experience; and to let the students know we valued their opinions and respected independent thinking. For these purposes the response journal seemed the most appropriate format.

However, there were additional purposes we wanted to achieve. Not only did we want to focus the students' attention on assigned reading and class discussions, but we also wanted to hold them accountable for that information. We wanted to extend their mental interaction with and manipulation of the information and concepts presented by requiring them to analyze, synthesize, integrate and organize the information in a meaningful fashion. In addition, we wanted to monitor their comprehension, encourage integration, and simulate application of the concepts being presented.

To facilitate these purposes, a structured response format consisting of a variety of writing tasks requiring analysis, synthesis, integration and application was implemented in addition to the unstructured response journal. The tasks were also designed to facilitate the writing process by providing the student with a hypothetical perspective, a designated audience, and a specific forum for communicating with the audience.

Before the design was complete two additional decisions had to be made. Should the journal be instructor-respondent or nonrespondent? If the journal was to be instructor-respondent, how frequently should the instructor respond? What would most effectively facilitate achievement of the identified purposes?

An instructor-respondent journal was selected because it provides an opportunity for the student to communicate with the instructor in a personal and nonthreatening format. By virtue

Reading and responding on a weekly basis provided insight as to individual students' comprehension of the concepts being presented in class and in the reading. This permitted the instructor to correct any misconceptions and to redirect thinking before new and contingent concepts were introduced. The responses also served as an indicator of the clarity of the instructor's presentation of the concepts and as a stimulus for re-evaluating instructional strategies.

THE FORMAT

The following instructions were given to the students for the unstructured and structured journal entries. We made the decision to assign points for the journals because the process <u>is</u> time consuming for the students and because we wanted to stress that this process was as valuable as an exam or any other more product-oriented task.

<u>Response Journal</u>

You will need a spiral notebook to serve as a response journal. Personal responses, comments, and questions regarding: class lectures, discussions and activities; field experiences; and assigned as well as independent readings are appropriate. I will read your journal entries and give written responses. The purposes of the journal are to encourage critical and reflective evaluation of the course content and to provide an opportunity for individual communication with the instructor.

The response journal must contain a minimum of 20 entries. Each entry should be numbered and dated. Journals should be turned in each Friday and will be returned to you at the beginning of the next class session.

Journals will be evaluated on the following criteria:

_____ Effort and sincerity reflected in entries

_____ Quality of thinking reflected

_____ Reflection of consideration of concepts discussed in class and/or expressed in assigned or independent reading

_____ Entries are numbered and dated.

_____ / 20 Possible points

Structured Journal Entries

In lieu of a midterm exam a brief written response to assigned readings will be required. You are to respond to six of the eleven choices below. The due dates will correspond with due dates for your personal response journal entries. At least one of the six structured responses must be turned in on each due date. You may tab your spiral notebook and write your structured responses directly in the journal spiral. Identify your response by number and title. Each response is worth five points. Responses will be evaluated according to the following criteria:

_____ Quality of thinking reflected in the response

_____ Degree to which responses are directed to the situation provided

_____ Evidence of integration of all required reading and class discussions

(1) Making Choices

(Estes and Vaughn, Chapters 1, 2, 14, and 16)

Complete this diary entry:

Dear Diary,

I have just finished reading the curriculum guide for my (American History) class. There is so much the students are expected to know. I know I am responsible for helping them learn this information, but there are other things I feel are just as important.

I want to help my students.....realize, understand, learn.....

I want to provide the opportunity for my students to.....

(2) The Foxfire Principle

(Estes and Vaughn, Chapters 1 & 2)

The concept of "Foxfire" is more than a magazine. Describe how you could use the "Foxfire principle" in your classroom.

(3) Attitudes and Interests

(Estes and Vaughn, Chapters 5 & 13)

"Attitudes toward school are changed by experiences in school."

You are approaching your high school graduation and are reflecting on your high school experiences in your diary. Recall in your diary those experiences that gave you a negative attitude toward school or toward a particular class. Then, describe those school experiences that gave you a positive attitude toward school or toward a particular class.

Since you plan to become a high school teacher yourself you continue you diary entry by listing those things you will never do as a teacher. Also include those things you intend to do so that your students will be eager to learn and will have a positive attitude toward school and the learning experience.

(4) Reading/Study Skills

(Estes & Vaughn, Chapters 5 & 13)

Identify the reading/study skills that are necessary in your particular content area. Also identify the patterns of text structure commonly used in your particular content area.

Now, write a letter to your colleague telling how and why teaching reading/study skills can enhance content learning rather than take time away from content teaching.

(5) Vocabulary

(Estes and Vaughn, Chapters 7 & 12)

You are a veteran teacher supervising a student teacher. You are reviewing her/her lessons plans for the week to come. The plans call for the students to look up the new vocabulary words listed in the teacher's manual in the dictionary and write the definition for each word before the lesson actually begins. Write a "note" to your charge explaining why this is not the most effective way to introduce the vocabulary words and give him/her some alternative strategies.

(6) Individual Differences

Describe 10 ways in which you can accommodate individual differences in reading ability and conceptual levels within your content area class.

(7) Structured Overview

Construct a structured overview of the combined information contained in Chapters 9 - 12.

(8) The Wentworth Syndrome

(Estes & Vaughn, Unit 3)

Write a letter to your future students describing the "Wentworth Syndrome" and your personal reactions to it. Tell them what you hope to do to combat the "Wentworth Syndrome" in your classroom.

(9) Writing in the Content Areas

(assigned readings)

You are going to blaze a new trail in your school by using writing as a tool for helping the students learn and think about your particular content area. Since change is often questioned and/or criticized, you want to address the issues immediately. Write a letter to the parents of your students explaining WHY their children will be writing about the content as well as conducting experiments, making computations, etc. Give examples of the kinds of writing activities they will be doing.

Your letter should be no more than one double-spaced typewritten page (long letters from school tend not to be read). It should be friendly, yet professional in tone. The benefits of integrating writing into the content curriculum should be clearly stated. Remember, the letter must be approved by your principal before it can be distributed.

(10) Content Area Literature

(assigned readings)

You are about to complete your first year of teaching. At the beginning of the year, the content area text served as the primary source of information. As the year progressed you began to integrate more and more content area literature into your curriculum and into your instructional strategies. While the process was not without frustration, you are extremely pleased with the results.

Write a letter to your best friend (also a first-year teacher) explaining why you decided to use content area literature. Describe the difficulties and frustrations you encountered in the initial stages and your most successful strategies and activities. Explain the positive

results and the benefits derived from your incorporation of content area literature.

(11) Censorship

(assigned readings)

You are interviewing for your first job. The issue of censorship becomes the topic of discussion. You are asked to explain and justify your opinions regarding censorship. How will you respond?

After you have responded, you ask the employer questions relevant to the issue of censorship. What will you ask? Why?

IN SUMMARY

We have found the unstructured/structured journal format described above to effectively achieve our instructional purposes. Students began to take more responsiblity for monitoring their understanding and integration of the concepts presented than had been noted when journals were not part of the curriculum.

This journal activity also resulted in many unanticipated benefits. One of the most obvious was the increased sense of community that became apparent in the classroom. Armed with confidence in their own opinions and with respect for the opinions of others, the students began to interact more frequently and openly during class discussions and activities. Those previously hesitant to speak in class began to participate. Students began to voluntarily share content-related newspaper and magazine articles with the class. Students also began to articulate connections they were making between class content, other classes, clinical experiences and current educational issues. An active, cooperative learning environment in which students viewed themselves as responsible, capable learners and who demonstrated an intensive understanding and integration of course content had been established.

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MAKING CURRICULUM CONNECTIONS: THE CENTRALITY OF LANGUAGE ARTS

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Language arts should be the first priority of the school's curriculum. Preservice teachers--especially elementary majors--need to understand curriculum principles to develop a total strategy for facilitating all aspects of students' communicative learning ability, K-12.

University courses in the teaching of language arts-reading need to prepare students to visualize connections across all learning domains, to consider how instruction meshes with teachers in grades above and below them, and to be prepared to plan a unified language arts curriculum with other subjects taught in elementary classrooms. Elementary education majors need: a repertoire of approaches to teach language arts-reading since no one strategy is appropriate for all students. These students also need a precise knowledge of language, learning processes, and materials to use at a specific time for specific purposes for specific students.

Education majors complete numerous courses dealing with "How to teach...," but many courses overlook curriculum connections across these subjects. The use of a thread of language arts spiraling vertically and horizontally through a K-12 curriculum can make all appropriate connections for learning in all curriculum domains.

RELATIONSHIPS OF CHILDREN'S STORIES TO READING ACHIEVEMENT: A LONGITUDINAL PERSPECTIVE GRADES ONE TO SIX

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The importance of language as a base for reading has been noted (Ruddell, 1974; Cunningham & Moore, 1983). The notion that oral language facilitates the transition from speech to print is commonly accepted by educators. Research has shown that children understand written passages that approximate their natural discourse better than passages that do not (Ruddell, 1965).

Although research on the structural properties of language is quite extensive, evidence for a relationship between oral language and reading ability is somewhat ambiguous. Loban (1963) proposed that for oral language, clausal complexity, length, and vocabulary were related to reading achievement. Even though Hunt's (1965) minimal terminable syntactic unit (T-unit) was considered to be a sensitive measure of development toward maturity in children's oral and written language production, Hopkin's (1977) study indicated that the average sentence length was the best predicter of reading achievement.

On the other hand, Pike (1977) believed that there may be no general relation between oral and written language but rather relationships between specific language variables and specific reading tasks. She found that the extent to which children used syntactic cues varied and were related to reading abilities. Although studies have found that language ability is highly predictive of reading achievement, the relationships of language to reading achievement as well as relationships between developing oral and written language are not fully understood or well documented.

More recently, investigators have researched components other than syntactic structures such as semantic and pragmatic features and functions. Lazarus 91985) reported on the pragmatic functional features of language: Metalinguistic awareness, print awareness, offering or requesting definitions or etymologies, correcting self or others' behavior or position, and the use of the interactive functions of language across whole sessions and within specific activities that were not teacher directed were the oral language features that presaged later reading achievement.

Currently, researchers have directed their investigations beyond the production of words and sentences to connected discourse and text analyses. Researches indicated that story schema and story structure assist in understanding new information (Rumelhart, 1975; Thorndyke, 1977;Stein & Glenn, 1977; Meyer, 1981; van Dijk, 1977). From a developmental perspective, the information students understood and recalled from stories increased with age. Fitzgerald (1983) found a positive relationship between reading achievement and the ability to anticipate narrative text during reading. However, there was not a significant difference between fourth and sixth grade readers in the extent to which particular story structures were expected.

Narrative discourse processing deficits have been noted in studies of language/learning disabled students (Weaver & Dickinson, 1979; Graybeal, 1981). Generally, the storytelling behavior of learning disabled students resembled that of developmentally younger children (Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Roth & Spekman, 1986). However, Norris, Wasinger, and Baack's (1985) study of the developmental features of language impaired preschoolers' stories found that story complexity did not correlate with age for language-impaired subjects. Nor did story errors correlate with age for either population. This study supported the notion that children with language handicaps qualitative differ from linguistically handicapped children rather than reflecting language delays.

Stories have been researched from differnt narrative perspectives: conceptual units, linguistic devices, communicative events, text structure, and pragmatic features. Stories are complex and require the coordination of various components which are carried within linguistic units. A study which analyzes the narrative components as well as language units may reveal information that more accurately describes the narrative act. Such a study may reveal the changes in relationships among and between story/language elements found in children's stories as they mature. To date, no studies have examined the relationships of language units and story components simultaneously to reading achievement.

The present study was designed to document the relationships of story/language elements to reading achievement in children's oral generated stories using a longitudinal design. Stories were elicited from chidren on four occasions across a six year span. Instead of analyzing one component such as plot, the

study was designed to investigate several aspects of narratives at microstructural and macrostructural levels. Each story was analyzed in terms of its microstructure, i.e., the semantic content and connectivity of sentences, and its macrostructre, i.e., the hierarchical structures that reveal the gist of the text. Briefly, story microstructures referred to the use of formal conventions, clausal connections and T-units. Story macrostructures referred to the sources of the stories, the overall plot organization, and the number and kinds of characters.

This exploratory study was designed to address three research questions: (a) What are the relationships of children's generated stories to reading achievement from a longitudinal perspective? (b) What is the relative contribution of each of the story/language elements to reading achievement? (c) What is the relationship of children's generated stories at the beginning of first grade to their reading achievement in the fifth/sixth grades?

Method

Subjects

Twelve students were selected as participants in the study; they were enrolled in the first grades at either of two separate school districts in Midwestern towns. Both schools were similar in that each school's population was comprised primarily of rural students, and each was located approximately twenty miles from a university. Six students from each first grade volunteered to participate in the study. Each classroom teacher designated two students with high reading ability, two with average reading ability as indexed by their classroom performances and reading achievement scores on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills (Houghton Mifflin, 1978) and the Metropolitan Achievement Test (Psychological Corporation, 1978). Two low ability students, one from each school, were lost from the study because their families moved from the school districts.

Procedures

Each student was interviewed four times: (a) the beginning of first grade, (b) the end of first grade, (c) the end of second grade, and (d) the second week of March of the fifth rade for the students in one school district or the third week of January of the sixth grade for students in the other school district.

During each interview each participant was asked to tell two stories using two different elicitation procedures. In the oral elicitation procedure, the

student was directed to "Tell me a story." After the completion of the story, six finger animal puppets were placed in front of the child. The student was instructed to "Choose one of these puppets, two of these puppets, three or more of these puppets, and tell me a story." No time limit was imposed nor were probes or prompts used. The full interview was audio recorded; the researcher also made a written record of the stories. The stories were subsequently transcribed verbatim and the transcipts checked against the written records.

Coding

Following story transcription, each story was analyzed for the following story elements:

(a) Sources of stories were based on actual experiences if it was narrated in first person, derived from familiar stories that the child had heard, read, or otherwise experienced, generated from novel story elements, or derived by combining elements from several sources which the child had heard, read, or otherwise experienced.

(b) Plots were categorized as temporal sequences in which story events were narrated in chronological order. Mixed temporal or causal plots in which events were narrated in chronological order and causal connections among the events were specified. Embedded plots which was expanded by subordinate subplots in which events may or may not be in chronological order.

(c) Characters were tallied according to familiar people, familiar animals, and novel animate or inanimate things such as werewolf or a magic sword.

(d) Story conventions were formal openings, formal closings, and tenses. Formal openings consisted of fairy tales opening, immediate actions, or settings. Closings were subcategorized as terminations, fairy tale closings, and formal closings. Tenses were subcategorized as mixed if past, present, and future tenses were combined, past if consistent past tnese was used, episodic if a specific tense was used for one episode and subsequent episode(s) were of another tense, and present/future if consistent present or future tense occurred.

(e) Clausal connections between clauses were tallied according to twelve subcategories which noted ands, ors, subordinating conjunction, causal conjunctions, conditional conjunctions, disjunctive conjunctions, temporal conjunctions, and relative pronouns.

(f) T-units were segmented and classified according to simple sentences, compound element sentences, main clauses with a single subordinate clause and main clauses with multiple subordinate clauses.

More specific definitions and illustrations for each story element were provided in a previous report (Ice, 1987).

Reliability

Interrater reliability checks were completed for the story elements that required some amount of subjectivity in classification. Reliability checks were provided for sources of stories, plot, story conventions, and T-units. Ten percent of the stories produced at each grade level were reviewed by two independent observers. Agreement percentages were calculated separately for each of the four story elements. At least a 90% level of interrater agreement for each story element with a range between 90% for story plots and 99% for T-units segmentation.

Analyses

Statistical analysis involved the use of partial correlation and stepwise multivariate regression on each of the story elements. Because little was known about which elements were likely to be significant, all the story elements were incluced in the regression. Statistical control of the variables was addressed with partial correlation which detects spurious correlations and multiple regression which attempts to sort out and control the effects of each of the story elemets on the variance in reading achievement. Partial correlations were examined with percentiles on the Metropolitan Achievement Test and the Iowa Tests of Basis Skills. Because of the small number of the sample population and the compelxity of the variables, this study did not have an a priori level of statistical significance such as .01 and .05. Rather, the study was designed to explore the vlaue of analyzing a small number of children's stories in a holistic manner before anlayzing a larger sample population.

Results

Because of the small sample pouplation, the results at best should be viewed tentatively. The first research question addressed the relationship of the six story elements to reading achievement in children's generated stories. As noted in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4 correlations ranged from .6101 p=.64 at the beginning of fist grade, to .83546, p=.24 end of first grade, to .85126 p=.21 end of second grade, to .82588 p=.26 for fifth/sixth grades. Overall, the correlation of the story elements to reading achievement indicates a trend of a high positive correlation even though it is not statistically significant.

The second research question addressed the relative contribution of each of the story elements to reading achievement. To determine the relative importance of the six story elements in this study and the contribution of each story element to the total variance, stepwise multiple regression analyses were performed. According to the multiple regression equation analyses, the contribution of certain story elements were substantial. At the beginning of first grade, the multiple regression for step one indicated that story conventions added .4029, significance of F 1,8 = 5.40 (see Table 1). The increments in the multiple R-square (R2) unique at each step for the other story elements were not significant. Thus, the children's knowledge and usage of story conventions at the beginning of first grade may be considered a useful predictor of reading achievement.

By the end of first grade, stepwise multiple regression analyses of the story elements indicated that at step one, story plot contributed 44 percent to the total variance F 1,8 = 6.18 (see Table 2). At step two, story conventions contributed 20 percent to increase the partial correlation to .6372. R2 was increased .1655, F 3,6 = 8.13 by story sources at step three. At step four R2 was increased 2 percent and explained 82 percent of the variance. The other story elements were minimal. Thus, knowledge and use of story plot, story conventions, story sources, and T-units in the children's stories were considered useful in predicting reading achievement at the end of first grade.

Stepwise multiple regression analyses of the story elements at the end of second grade indicated that for each step the story elements contributed more equal percentages to the total partial correlation of .8513 (see Table 3). Although none of the percentages were substantial, story plot, story characters, clausal connectors, and T-units contributed the most percentages to the total partial correlation.

At the end of fifth/sixth grades, stepwise multiple regression analyses pointed out that primarily three story elements, T-units, story characters, and clausal connectors, contribute the most percentages to the total partial correlation of .8359 (see Table 4). None of these percentages were substantial.

The third research question addressed the relationship of the story elements at the beginning of first grade to reading achievement at the fifth/sixth grades. The partial correlation was .09 p =.998.

Apparently, children's knowledge and use of the story elements in their generated stories at the beginning of first grade are not highly related to their reading achievement at the fifth/sixth grades.

In summary, story conventions and story plot predicted first grade reading achievement. None of the story elements were substantial for second and fifth/sixth grades because of the wider spread of percentages contributed by each of the story elements to the total partial correlation.

Discussion

This study investigated the relationships and relative contribution of story/language elements in children's generated stories to reading achievement. Children's generated stories require that children learn to orchestrate the various story elements into organized coherent stories. This study analyzed the stories of ten children as they progressed from first grade through fifth/sixth grades. Although the sample size is small, the results of the study help to clarify the relationships of the six story elements to reading achievement. Moreover, analyzing both macro and micro structural elements help to clarify the relative importance of language in relationship to story structures.

First, the positive correlation of the story elements to reading achievement suggests that six story elements are important variables to consider and address in reading and reading achievement. Moreover, the correlations were fairly consistent from the beginning of first grade through fifth/sixth grades.

Second, the findings of this study suggest that the story/language elements are not static relationships to reading achievement. As the macrostructures story conventions and story plot contribute the largest percentages to the total variance in reading achievement in grades one and two, story structures are important components to address in reading and reading achievement. Apparently, children pick up spontaneously these structures from the stories they are experiencing. Consequently, these structures need not be taught explicitly. However, there must be exposure to books, stories, and literature in order for children to develop these structures prior to school entrance as well as during reading and reading instruction in the elementary grades.

At the fifth/sixth grades the micro structure, T-units, contributed the largest percentage to the

total variance in reading achievement. Children's use of complex sentence structures may not be taken from story models but rather may reflect their ability to use causal connectives and subordinate clauses. As such linguistic devices signal plot complexities, they become important for understanding complex texts. Consequently, students may need explicit instruction with complex sentence/language structures if they are to use and understand them.

Finally, the observation of the low correlation of .0928 for the story elements at the beginning of first grade to fifth/sixth reading achievement suggests that the criteria for measuring reading achievement in grade one and the fifth/sixth grades may be different in many respects. Even so the correlation matrix revealed that story conventions still correlated the highest to reading achievement at fifth/sixth grades.

Implications

Apparently, the increased complexity in the students' story and language structures reflects their exposure to stories, cognitive growth of causality, and their ability to handle multiple demands. From a longitudinal perspective, the relationships of the story/language elements to reading achievement have several implications for reading. First, children must be exposed to narrative texts prior to school so that they are developing story and language structures. Moreover, providng for story telling and story writing activities during reading instruction may assist with reading comprehension.

Second, developing a better understanding of story plots with children may assist them in processing the many interwoven plot variations found in narratives. Since language structures signal plot complexities, knowledge of and use of language structures are important for understanding and producing complex texts. Ultimately, language units may need to be addressed for narrative materials as well as expository materials.

Finally, students may need guidance in orchestrating all the story elements into coherent narratives. Such guidance may best be addressed through reading/writing connections and processes. Reading is vital during the writing process not only for ideas and content, but also as models of story/language structures. Such understandings are important so that students are capable of moving beyond their own language and texts to the language and texts of others.

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Tables

Table 1
Story elements and reading achievement relationships

Beginning of First Grade		
Squared Multiple Correlation		.6101
Stepwise Multiple Regression		
Story Conventions	.4029	
Story Source	.0684	
Clausal Connectors	.1147	
T-units	.0201	
Story Characters	.0039	
Story Plot	.0001	

Table 2
Story elements and reading achievement relationships

End of First Grade		
Squared Multiple Correlation		.8355
Stepwise Multiple Regression		
Story Plot	.4357	
Story Conventions	.2015	
Story Sources	.1655	
T-units	.0205	
Clausal Connectors	.0100	
Story Characters	.0023	

Table 3
Story elements and reading achievement relationships

End of Second Grade		
Squared Multiple Correlation		.8513
Stepwise Multiple Regression		
Story Plot	.2200	
Story Character	.0777	
Clausal Connectors	.1858	
T-units	.1590	
Story Source	.0630	
Story Conventions	.1457	

Table 4
Story elements and reading achievement relationships

Fifth/Sixth Grades		
Squared Multiple Correlation		.8259
Stepwise Multiple Regression		
T-units	.2241	
Story Characters	.3214	
Clausal Connectors	.1212	
Story Sources	.0675	
Story Plot	.0739	
Story Conventions	.0178	

Reading Lesson Redesign: Strategies and Guidelines for Modifying Commercial Reading Materials

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The focus of reading instruction has gradually shifted in emphasis from word recognition to comprehension and from the traditional ability grouped arrangement where students read aloud from the basal, to a more substantive, relevant type of learning experience based on related and alternative materials and a variety of grouping patterns. To gain a perspective on how the current literature represents and reflects these innovations, we will begin by examining the trends and practices that have been emerging in classroom instruction as well as in the related and highly influential areas of teacher planning and integrated curriculum design.

Reading Trends & Instructional Practices

Teacher effectiveness studies of the late seventies focused on a series of variables associated with effective classroom reading instruction. (Medley, 1977) identified four process variables associated with effective instruction namely, on-going diagnosis, structure and direct instruction, opportunity to learn and apply skills, and attention to and engagement in learning tasks. We will address each of these factors in light of more recent studies.

Teacher effectiveness findings suggest that effective teachers continually assess and teach students to self-monitor their own progress in reading, providing both instructional and extension materials appropriate in difficulty to provide success as well as challenge to the students. Secondly, in terms of organizing instruction, teachers need to provide sufficient structure and feedback when teaching new strategies. Direct instruction is a favored approach involving a high degree of teacher modeling and direction at the onset of a new strategy, but then control of

the lesson is gradually relinquished to the students. According to Duffy & Roehler (1987) skills should not be taught in isolation but rather as strategies through model demonstrations and explicit explanations in the actual context of the subject matter being studied. Such strategies or learning plans should be introduced prior to reading the selection. The strategy should then be directly applied. Third, attention to and engagement to task, requires that students be integrally involved in the learning activities through independent application of the strategies. The fourth and final variable, opportunity to learn and apply skills, attests to the importance of providing time for independent reading and writing. (Allington, 1980) found that teachers provided more opportunities for skilled readers to read silently and apply skills than less skilled readers. Likewise, Spiegel (1983) and Winograd, and Greenlee (1986) emphasize the need for a balanced, independent reading program, where students are empowered to read to realize and pursue their talents and satisfy their interests through extension reading.

Alternative Reading Approaches

The recent literature has expressed concern with the exclusive use of commercial texts in the reading program. Eldredge & Butterfield (1987) studied a variety of alternative instructional approaches and grouping patterns in reading. They compared five alternatives; basals with homogeneous grouping, basals with heterogeneous grouping, basals with heterogeneous grouping and 10-15 minutes of special decoding, a literature based program and a literature based program with special decoding. Their study found that the three programs where heterogeneous grouping and/or a literature approach were used, led to greater student progress.

Spiegel (1983, 1987) emphasizes the benefits of integrating reading and content area studies. Cullinan (1987) presents a series of articles suggesting ways to integrate children's literature into the curriculum and includes applied reading strategies. A large amount of reading time is available to students during seatwork time. According to Anderson, Osborn, & Tierney (1984) only about one-fourth of the daily seatwork time in reading should be devoted to workbook and skill page activities. The remaining time should be

used for fostering opportunities for students to apply reading strategies and skills through reading and writing.

Curricular Planning

According to Shannon (1983), the basal reader is used as the primary method for teaching reading by 90-96% of the classroom teachers in the United States. Traditional classroom planning in reading consists of implementing the commercial materials in a manner consistent with the district reading curriculum guide. An alternative to traditional curricular planning is offered by Patterson, Purkey, and Parker (1986) and is referred to as strategic planning. We live in an information age, where significant changes occur on a daily basis. We must find a way to capture and address the dynamics of change in our daily instruction. This can be accomplished through curriculum planning. In their interpretation of the Strategic Planning Model, Patterson, Purkey, & Parker (1986) present the differences between conventional and strategic planning in terms of five categories of information that influence curriculum development:

Planning

Traditional	vs	Strategic
A. World View		
. internal focus		. external focus
. concern with own immediate environment, school and town		. concern with global impact of world events on all nations
B. System Perspective		
. segmented		. integrated
. subjects are taught in isolation, discrete topical ways		. interest in the interdependence of societies
C. Planning Focus		
. long range		. medium/short range
. curricular plans/ decisions for 5-10 year periods		. several days to . several years depending on issues and events
. static		. flexible

D. Data Base

. quantitative	. qualitative
. concern with student mastery, test scores	. interest in understanding process, problem solving
. demonstrated knowledge of subject	. real-life applications

E. Outcomes/Goals

. master plan suggests a completed and fixed curriculum	. masterful planning . suggests a curriculum that is continually renewed

Strategic planning encourages teachers to keep their curriculum updated, relevant in terms of the content incorporated including real-life events. Strategic planning focuses on integration of subject area topics and concepts across disciplines.

Integrated Curriculum Design

The components of world view, integrated planning can be seen effectively applied in Madison, Wisconsin's Universal Curriculum, Newman & Rutter (1986) and Anchorage, Alaska's Curriculum 2000 Keitz (1986). During the last decade, world events have become an integral component of our curriculum. With health, political, and environmental problems, affecting all cultures, we see the need for nations to work together collaboratively to solve world problems. This trend can be observed in a new integrated curriculum developed by the Anchorage schools. The district abandon the traditional fragmented curriculum of discrete courses and has adopted a subject integrated plan to teach skills for a productive future that are needed for a changing, global society. Curriculum 2000 focuses on the social, economic and environmental changes in our society. Students identify and examine problems across the disciplines of science, social studies and health and identify ways to solve problems people are facing in this country and other world nations. Newman & Rutter (1986) have proposed a similar curriculum with four basic underlying themes namely, our responsibility as citizens to share in solving world problems, our role as members of humankind to care for all people around the globe, the responsibility as stewards of the earth and its vital support system, and finally the need to all nations to work together, toward peaceful, cooperative existence. Next, an

example will be presented explaining how a basal lesson can be recast to reflect strategic planning.

Strategic Planning - Basal Application

The selection, "No Swimming" appears in the 1980 edition of the Holt second grade, first semester reader entitled, People Need People. It is a selection about a parent and a number of neighborhood children who decide to go for a swim in a local lake but find a sign posted when they arrive which states "No Swimming". The lake has been closed due to water pollution. They investigate the cause of the problem and decide to take action. The group seeks the help of a local news reporter who takes photographs and prints the article the children write to alert the community of the problem. The article establishes a Clean-up Day and requests citizens to show up at the lake to help. The clean-up proves successful and the students solve the problem. The water is again fit for swimming, the problem has been solved.

World View

Following the strategic planning format mentioned earlier, discussion of problems with clean water and its relationship to health, survival and recreation across the globe could be undertaken. A bulletin board with pictures could depict these needs in semantic mapping format.

System Perspective

To gain a deeper perspective of the importance of the water supply in certain parts of the world, articles about the drought in Africa could be discussed integrating weather, land and water forms, ecology, geography, cultures and economics. The book, Bringing the Rain to Kapiti Plain, is an illustrated pattern story depicting the current drought conditions in Africa.

Planning Focus

Long range planning could involve the integration of the science and social studies units with the basal selection "No Swimming" and other stories in the reader unit that focus on the topic of water, such as a story about a young girl whose mother is a scientist who works with dolphins. Medium to short range planning would involve the use of newspaper pictures and captions and articles from Weekly Reader or Ranger Rick on recent issues and advances or even problems in our world concerning water as a vital resource.

Data Base

Assignments, quizzes or tests focusing on the concepts and terminology would represent a quantitative type of assessment. Asking students to read about conditions in other parts of the world or to read news clippings about lakes in the area being closed to swimmers due to the high bacteria count at certain times of the year would place more emphasis on identifying and solving problems. Reacting to the problems to generate possible solutions, would focus on application of the concepts learned, real-life problem solving skills, thus qualitative assessment.

Outcomes/Goals

Masterful planning has been reflected throughout the selection application. The integration of recent news stories, and global issues has offered a current events perspective to the original basal selection, renewing the traditional fixed curriculum.

As can be seen from the above example, strategic planning can be used to unite topical selections across disciplines. In addition it directs the learning toward a more relevant, real-life series of lessons that encourage independent reading in a rich literate environment.

Suggested Guidelines for Lesson Redesign

The guidelines listed below have been developed based on recommendations provided in the recent literature and from ideas gained through lessons designed and taught by undergraduates in the reading practicum field experience at the University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire. The guidelines are divided into three general classifications, namely direct instruction, independent seatwork/indirect instruction, and finally workbooks and skill pages.

Guidelines for Lesson Redesign

Direct Instruction

1. focus on attitude, process and content outcomes (Duffy & Roehler, 1986)
2. identify relevant content and strategies/skills to teach
3. link lesson to other related topics-create a literate environment (Spiegel, 1987) & (Duffy & Roehler, 1986)
4. shift comprehension strategies/skills to the initial segment of the lesson (Duffy & Roehler, 1986)

5. move enrichments to the beginning of the lesson to serve as motivational sets (Reutzel, 1985)
6. advance plan - integrate lessons in reading with content area units and create more time for projects and collaborative extensions (Spiegel, 1983 & 1987)
7. involve all other communication skills of thinking, speaking, listening and writing
8. teach strategies explicitly in the context of the selection (Duffy & Roehler, 1986 & 1987)

Independent Seatwork/Indirect Instruction

1. spend only about one-fourth of the 60-70% of seatwork time on workbook and skill pages (Anderson, Osborn, Tierney, 1984)
2. increase opportunities for independent reading/writing and discussion (Graves & Hanson, 1983)
3. integrate children's literature into the curriculum (Cullinan, 1987), (Spiegel, 1987), and (California Department of Education, 1986)
4. plan for a wide variety of laternative grouping patterns with related projects and collaboration
5. ensure a rich literate environment incorporating books, periodicals, newspapers, informational print, and non-print media (Duffy & Roehler, 1986) and (Winograd & Greenlee, 1986).

Workbooks & Skill Pages

1. select only the essential pages for instruction and practice - those with relevant tasks and required skills (Jett-Simpson, 1984)
2. redesign tasks to promote writing responses - generative vs select/completion
3. encourage students to create their own questions and justify responses through discussion (Alvermann, Dillion, and O'Brien, 1987)
4. cluster skills and teach in many contexts for understanding - then maintain
5. teach reading skills/strategies through transfer to content area subjects (Duffy & Roehler, 1986)

Next, Monica Miller, and Terry Hanson will present an integrated reading/science lesson which they developed and taught during their field experiences. They chose to link the children's literature selection, The Lorax with a science unit on pollution utilizing strategic planning and guidelines for lesson redesign.

V. APPLICATION

Example Lesson: The Lorax by Dr. Seuss

Level: 3 or 4

Subjects: Reading (Vocab., Compr., Skills)
Science (Environmental Protection)

Time: Approx. 2 weeks (1 hour per day)

A. Purpose

Elementary education students at U.W.E.C. are required to teach reading for a two week "block" experience. The reading methods classes offer a variety of projects and ideas to help students complete this assignment. The project we chose consisted of building a reading unit around a children's literature source. Choosing the book for this project was easy! The Lorax, by Dr. Seuss, not only lends itself to teaching many valuable reading skills, but also helps teach the science ideas of pollution and environmental quality. With a little thought and imagination, the unit can be extended even further into the areas of language art, social studies, and even math. In the affective area, The Lorax is a perfect source for teaching author appreciation and value judgement. Following is an outline of the skills and concepts we focused on as we taught the unit.

B. Reading

1. Vocabulary
    a. background knowledge
    b. author style
    c. context clues
    d. structural analysis
    e. phonetic clues
2. Comprehension
    a. background knowledge
    b. author purpose
    c. prediction
    d. picture clues
    e. character analysis
    f. guided reading procedure
    g. creative drama
3. Skills
    a. semantic mapping
    b. story structure
    c. word analysis: suffixes
    d. cause-effect/ sequencing
    e. study skills: research

C. Science

1. Four types of pollution: land, air, water, and noise
2. Environmental Awareness
3. Conservation of Resources
4. Wildlife Management
5. Protective and Corrective Agencies

D. Global Education and Strategic Planning

The final message of The Lorax is that living things need a clean environment in which to live. It is up to people (adults and children) to take care of the earth. Because misuse of the environment is a worldwide problem, it must be taught as a global concern, following the guidelines for strategic planning.

1. World View: Focus = External

   Pollution, misuse of resources, and abuse of wildlife are problems that extend well beyond the borders of our nation. It is important for children to learn about problems occurring in all parts of the world, and how these problems can affect the earth as a whole. Children should be encouraged not only to look for examples of pollution in their community, but also to read the paper and news magazines to look for problems occuring in other parts of the world.

2. System Perspective: Integrated

   In teaching this, or any integrated unit, pre-planning is essential. It is necessary to look over the objectives and goals for the entire semester, (or year!) and see which of these could be taught in connection with the unit. With The Lorax, pollution should be the focus in science. Because the book has so many quotations in it, that would be a good area to focus on in English during this unit. By using this source from children's literature as an alternative to basal teaching, a teacher can link virtually all subject areas to this single source, and show students that there is a connection among the material they are learning in various subject areas.

3. Planning Horizon: Medium/Short Range

   As the years pass, the environment changes.

Some of these changes are natural, and some are man-made. New inventions are constantly being marketed. New laws are passed, while old laws may change. For these reasons it is very important to keep current while planning, and update plans each year, rather than reteaching the same material each year.

4. Data Base: Qualitative

Too often today's teachers get caught in a "basal trap"--teaching strictly from the basal regardless of whether or not the students are finding meaning in the material. Using alternatives to the basal readers provide teachers with the opportunity to use material that will be more meaningful, thought provoking, and <u>real</u> to the students. The classroom can become a place where children want to study and learn more because they see a purpose for what they are learning. A literate rich environment can be created by taking advantage of current childrens' magazines, posters, displays, and free materials that are given out by various organizations. While teaching the "Lorax" unit on pollution, materials were provided free of charge from the National Wildlife Federation, the Department of Natural Resources, and our local power company. These sources are highly motivational for students, because they are not just school, they show the material in <u>real life</u>.

5. Outcome: Masterful Planning

The world is full of wonderfully different people, from different backgrounds, lifestyles, and experiences. Children come into the classroom each year with different ideas and different learning styles. Each year, the world itself is also different. For these reasons, it would be uneffective for a teacher to teach year after year from a "master plan." Each time a unit is taught, it is important to focus on the needs of society at the given time, the community in general, and the students as individuals. Taking the time to do masterful planning will insure more effective and meaningful instruction.

E. Planning

Using integrated lessons, units based on children's literature, and other alternatives to basal instruction is a very valuable teaching strategy, but often times educators do not use these ideas because they feel they do not have the time or the ability to put a unit together. In preparing the unit on The Lorax a series of steps was followed which would make a good guideline in preparing any integrated unit based on a children's literature source.

1. Choose a story or book: content related & motivational
2. Gather and examine all available materials pertaining to the topic of the book or possible topics relating to the book.
3. Form a web diagram for each area of instruction.
   Ex. material and skills to be taught in:
   (a) reading (b) science (c) English
4. Use these diagrams to form objectives.
5. Under each objective list all possible activities for meeting the objective. BRAINSTORM!
6. From these lists, choose the activities you would like to use. Make a "T-Plan" containing planned objectives and activities for the unit.

Ex.

Objectives	Activities
1.	1.(a)
	(b)
2.	2.(a)
	(b)
	(c)

7. Break the objectives down into several lessons. Decide which objectives and activities you want to cover each day.
8. Create set inductions, closures, and means for evaluation to go along with individual lessons and the unit as a whole.
9. Chart possible enrichment opportunities or ideas. Make a list of any extra credit opportunities for the students.
10. Teach the unit!

Summary

In this presentation we have provided an overview of the current trends, practices and alternative approaches to traditional reading instruction and curricular design. The ideas advanced involved integrating reading instruction with content area subjects, incorporating children's literature selections. In addition, a series of guidelines were proposed to support teachers in modifying traditional commercial lessons. The focus of the presentation has been to engage students in diversified reading experiences through collaborative reading, writing and discussion. Finally, an integrated children's literature and science unit which has been implemented at the elementary school level was presented to demonstrate the proven effectiveness of the proposed curricular and instructional changes. Achieving relevance in reading instruction requires not only knowledge of the processes and strategies essential to effective teaching but also strategic planning. Through the use of strategic planning and the guidelines for modifying lessons, every teacher can provide effective reading instruction.

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MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION FOR READING AND LANGUAGE ARTS EDUCATORS

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Welcome to this presentation. It is an honor and a pleasure to be one of the many presenters at this 1987 National Reading and Language Arts Educators' Conference here in Kansas City, Missouri.

I would like to start my presentation with this quotation, "No one should make the claim of being educated until he or she has learned to live in harmony with people who are different." (Wilson, 1982, in Donna J. Cole, 1987). In this quotation, I am underscoring "people who are different" because this phrase seems to be so relative. Is this phrase referring to people of different colors, height, weight, etc., or does the phrase use socio-economic standards as a criterion of people being different? Still another question that can be asked is, "In what ways are they different?"

My own perspectives in this paper is to view people who are different in agreement with the constitutional statement of the Council for Exceptional Children, which reads, "those multicultural groups, who, because of racial or ethnic origin, constitute a distinct and recognizable entity in our society." (Article XVII-Definitions, Council for Exceptional Children, October, 1987). These multicultural groups include native American Indians, Asians such as Filipinos, Vietnamese, Cambodians, Thailanders, Indonesians, Malaysians, etc. or Orientals such as Chinese, Taiwanese, Koreans, etc.; those with Spanish heritage such as Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, South Americans; people from the Pacific Islands like the Samoans and Blacks or Americans with African origins and many others. (Article XVII-Definitions, Council for Exceptional Children, October, 1987).

I feel the topic I am presenting, titled "Multicultural Education for Reading and Language Arts Educators" is a MUST not only for teachers in the reading and language arts fields, but for every one. I personally and professionally believe that Multicultural Education must be incorporated in everyone's total educational curriculum. In this way, we

are preparing citizenry to learn and appreciate living comfortably in a society composed of people with diverse cultural backgrounds.

I consider multicultural education as a means to prepare our youths to live and lead a meaningful, purposeful life in this American pluralistic society. I believe it is essential for everyone to be able to take full, productive participation in his/her community, and multicultural education is the tool by which a community becomes rich in heritage because of the composition of its people. Therefore, an important message in this paper is for everyone to realize his/her responsibility of assuming that future teachers acquire the concepts of and knowledge of multicultural education.

My presentation, therefore, focuses on the WHAT, WHY, and HOW of multicultural education as these relate to the preparation of reading and language arts teachers. For clarity and better understanding, this presentation is organized into three sections.

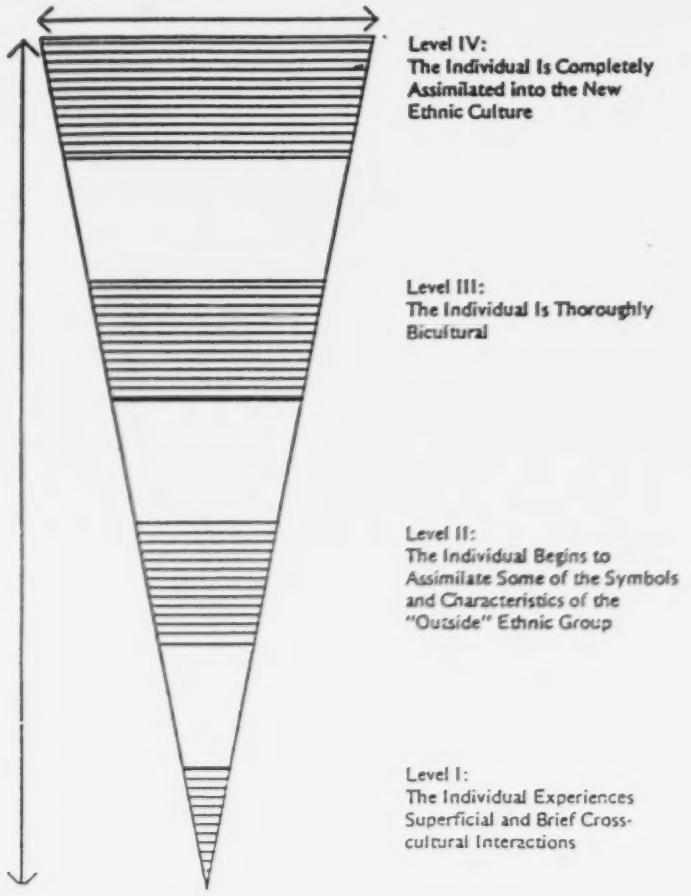
In the first section, I will expound on the WHAT of Multicultural Education. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) states:

> "Multicultural education is preparation for the social, political, and economic realities that individuals experience in culturally diverse and complex human encounters. These realities have both national and international dimensions. This preparation provides a process by which an individual develops competencies for perceiving, believing, and behaving in different cultural settings. Thus, multicultural education is viewed as an intervention and an ongoing assessment process to help institutions and individuals become more responsive to the human condition, individual cultural integrity, and cultural pluralism in society. (NCATE, 1977 in Banks 1981, p. 195).

An indepth analysis of this definition of multicultural education leads us to believe the importance of this concept of multiculturalism in one's total education. It is through this particular avenue that one would be able to achieve that state of multiculturalism: "a state in which one has mastered the knowledge and

developed the skills necessary to feel comfortable and communicate effectively (1) with people of the culture encountered and (2) in any situation involving groups of diverse cultural backgrounds." (Gollnick and Chinn, 1986, p. 19).

The state of achieving multiculturalism entails a step-by-step process. James A. Banks, (1981), an authority in the field of multicultural education, proposes that multiculturalism is achieved when an individual has reached the highest level of cross-cultural functioning. An understanding of the concept of cross-cultural functioning and how it is achieved is shown in the following diagram. (Banks, 1981, pp. 28-29).


Level IV:
The Individual Is Completely Assimilated into the New Ethnic Culture
Level III:
The Individual Is Thoroughly Bicultural
Level II:
The Individual Begins to Assimilate Some of the Symbols and Characteristics of the "Outside" Ethnic Group
Level I:
The Individual Experiences Superficial and Brief Cross-cultural Interactions

• Levels of Cross-cultural Functioning.

*Banks, James A. Multiethnic Education: Theory and Practice, Allyn and Bacon, Boston, Massachusetts, 1981. Reprinted by permission of the publisher.

Let me explain the four levels of cross-cultural functioning and how this can be achieved. Perhaps the best way to proceed is to cite an example.

A person from another country came to the U.S. for the first time. This is the person's first trip to this country. This person was brought to a place to eat hamburgers with all the trimmings on it. Hamburgers, whether McDonalds, Burger King, and others are very American. This is Level I, the first encounter of a new, different culture, on a brief, superficial basis.

If this person is to stay longer to learn more of the American ways of life, then, some period of time is necessary to learn the many aspects of American culture dealing with language, attitudes of people, characteristic traits, values of life and many others. This person who is at Level II will learn to speak American English to be able to communicate better, and will start to dress more American (to suit different weather conditions and appropriate occasions). This is the beginning of an individual's assimilating some cultural characteristics of the new culture and this individual is at Level II in the stages of achieving cross-cultural functioning.

When this person becomes more fluent in speaking the language, when this person becomes more confident of practicing the new ways of life, when this person behaves comfortably and projects his/her personality with ease and confidence, then this person is at the point of reaching Level III. How long will it take for someone to reach Level III? This will all depend upon several factors such as: purpose or goals of an individual; experiential background; age; plus the total personality of an individual person. Reaching Level III is good enough for an individual to be almost achieving cross-cultural functioning. It is actually in Level IV that an individual will achieve the ultimate peak of cross-cultural functioning.

Personally, I have reservations about Level IV which states "the individual is completely assimilated into the new ethnic culture." (Banks, 1981 p. 29). I believe there is nothing wrong to be completely assimilated into a new culture. My only concern is that as a segment of multicultural education, it is equally important to disseminate the idea that an individual upon

reaching Level IV needs also to preserve his/her own native culture, as well as assimilating the new one. It is through the preservation of your very own and the assimilation of the new that makes a person richer, ideally able to gain respect for himself/herself. To me, this is cross-cultural functioning: a giant step towards multiculturalism. I firmly believe that this message needs to be communicated to reading and language arts teachers as they are being prepared to assume roles in teaching the concept of cross-cultural functionimg in a multicultural dimension.

Cross-cultural functioning is, therefore, an important element in multicultural education. It is in cross-cultural functioning that an individual learns to understand and assimilate a culture. An individual's assimilation of a culture greatly depends on his/her knowledge of the behavioral traits of the group in such a culture. These behavioral traits or variables of a group behavior are and can be incorporated in a reading or language arts curriculum for reading and language arts teachers.

James A. Banks (1981, pp. 54-55) suggests eight variables of group behavior that can be used to conceptualize, measure, and determine the levels of behavior of individuals/groups and the levels of their competency in cross-cultural functioning. These variables consist of language and dialects, nonverbal communication, cultural elements such as food, native costumes, visual and performing arts etc., perspectives and views of the world, behavior styles and nuances, ethnic values, methods of reasoning and validating knowledge, and ethnic identification.

I wish it were possible for me to elaborate on each of these variables and give more specific examples, but time would not permit me to do this today because the other two sections of my presentation need equal time allotment to make a more complete and useful presentation. It is hoped that you will be able to pursue acquiring more information regarding cross-cultural functioning and multiculturalism. I encourage you to read more of these concepts contained in the references which I have listed. Hopefully, these will enrich your background knowledge and information regarding the subject of my paper.

After giving you the definition and other concepts toward achieving multiculturalism, I

would like to move to Section 2 of my presentation which is the WHY of Multicultural Education. There is no doubt in my mind that Multicultural Education provides a substantial contribution to the preparation of reading and language arts teachers. The best response to an in-depth understanding of knowing what we are trying to achieve by introducing Multicultural Education in the reading and language arts curriculum is the WHY of multicultural education which is best stated in the Goals of Multicultural Education. (Gollnick and Chinn, 1986, pp. 255-256).

> Multicultural education purports to help all students to:
> 1. learn basic academic skills,
> 2. acquire a knowledge of the historical and social realities of U.S. society to understand racism, sexism, and poverty,
> 3. overcome their fear of differences that leads to cultural misunderstandings and intercultural conflicts,
> 4. function effectively in their own and other cultural situations,
> 5. value cultural differences among people and to view differences in an egalitarian mode rather than in an inferior-superior mode; and
> 6. understand the multicultural nation and interdependent world in which they live.

An acknowledgement and an understanding of the goals of multicultural education is an important segment in achieving multiculturalism. Teachers of reading and language arts curriculum need to acquire further knowledge about multiculturalism and how to achieve these goals by incorporating it through various areas in the curriculum. The third section of this paper will enable reading and language arts teachers to pursue these goals.

Section 3 presents the HOW of Multicultural Education. In this third and last section of my presentation I will present some procedures in which the concept of Multicultural Education can be incorporated in the education of teachers who are preparing to teach reading and language arts subjects.

There are areas within an educational setting in which Multicultural Education can be applied. These areas include: textbooks and other instructional materials; curriculum and

instruction; behavior of teachers; and general school climate. (Gollnick and Chinn, 1983, p. 297).

The major area I will emphasize more is textbooks and instructional materials since this is an area in an educational setting which students acquire information more readily. If reading and language arts teachers are familiar with the strategies how multiculturalism could be introduced in textbooks and other instructional materials, then instruction on concepts of multiculturalism would be facilitated. I will discuss the step-by-step process of textbook selection and illustration or picture analysis in textbooks to determine that such books reflect the concepts of cross-cultural functioning as well as multiculturalism.

TEXTBOOK SELECTION

First, the technique of selecting books with multicultural perspective is a key point in this process. It is important to fully understand the guidelines to be considered when selecting books and other instructional materials such as resource books or handbooks. Specifically, when selecting a textbook, illustrations or pictures should be examined carefully to determine whether stereotyping is reflected in the illustrations or pictures in a book. The following guidelines would be helpful for reading and language arts teachers examining illustrations in any textbook and other instructional materials to determine that illustrations avoid stereotyping.*

1. Adults of a particular culture are shown in a variety of occupational, labor, and responsibility roles....
2. A variety of interior-exterior settings that reflect conditions of the minority population as a whole.
3. Multi-ethnic characters with facial features and body postures that are "alive" and demonstrate expressions compatible with the situation.
4. Characters of a particular culture with varying skin hues (from light to dark complexions), with a range of hair colors, hair textures, and styles, with variations in lips, eyes, and nose formation and in body builds.

5. Illustrations should avoid the stereotypes that are overtly or subtly inherent in depictions of a particular culture, such as the following:
   a. Adults shown just standing, sitting, and gazing aimlessly.
   b. Characters only in non-central or non-active roles.
   c. Characters who appear unjustifiably fearful, comical, festive, or humorous when situations don't warrant it.
   d. Characters who appear weak, kneeling, subservient, dumb, timid, scared, rigid, or lifeless.
   e. Color references which are negative....
   f. Characters who appear all alike, with unidentifiable characteristics or individuality.
   g. All mothers are depicted as bulky, obese physical figures.
   h. All fathers are absent in family and community settings.

*Source: Adapted from Lewis, F. (1977) Selecting Children's Books with Black Perspectives, pp. 27-28). Far West Laboratory for Research and Development, San Francisco, California.

It should be remembered that the above mentioned guidelines may not be present in any one book. It is the teacher's tact and professional judgment that should further guide her/him in selecting a particular book with the illustrations that are not stereotyping. In this manner, books are selected to meet the particular needs of students in acquiring the concept of multiculturalism. Then, once a book is finally selected, the next step is to analyze the illustrations in the book.

ILLUSTRATION OR PICTURE ANALYSIS:*

Illustrations in books play a significant role in teaching concepts of whatever nature which includes concepts of multiculturalism. Students are most often attracted to books through its illustrations or pictures. There seems to be some magnetic forces in illustrations to motivate students to read a book. Concepts of cross-cultural functioning and multiculturism could be well taught through intelligent analysis of illustrations or pictures in books. Analysis of illustrations or pictures could be accomplished through the following techniques (Lewis, 1975, p. 32).

Technique 1: Determine if there is an adequate percentage of illustrations showing people of the particular culture.
Technique 2: Determine if there is an adequate percentage of illustrations showing people of the particular culture as central characters.
Technique 3: Determine if the illustrations reflect the physical features of people of a particular culture.

*Source: Adapted from Lewis, F. (1975) p. 32. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, California. Reprinted by permission.

A reading and language arts teacher should be able to employ these techniques in analyzing illustrations of a book to determine that the book contains and promotes the perspectives of multiculturalism.

Let me explain how to employ Technique 1. After final selection of a book, the following instructions should be followed:*

1. Starting from the cover or title page of the book, count each illustration that includes people. Illustrations of animals and other inanimate objects are not included in this count.
2. Make a record of your count on a specified form (Figure 1).
3. Go back to the first page of the book and count the pictures or illustrations that show people of a particular culture.
4. Reflect the number from item 3 at the specified item in the Form for Technique 1.
5. Compute the figures from item 2 and 3 and follow the specific directions in Technique 1 Form to complete the process of determining that there is an adequate percentage of illustrations of people of a particular culture.

Fig. 1

TECHNIQUE I
Analysis of Illustrations or Pictures*

I - Total number of pictures or illustrations that include people. _____
II - Total number of pictures or illustrations showing people of a particular culture. _____

A. Divide the total number of pictures or illustrations showing people of a particular culture (number in II) by the total numbr of pictures or illustrations that include people (number in I).

B. Obtain the percentage by multiplying the number (quotient)obtained in A by 100.

III - Check the box below that corresponds to your obtained number. This criterion of percentages can be used as a suggested guide in determining whether there is an adequate percentage of illustrations or pictures of people of a particular culture in a book.

FOR TEXTBOOKS			FOR RESOURCE BOOKS
50 - 100%	☐	Excellent percentage of illustrations that show people of a particular culture.	☐ 70 - 100%
20 - 50%	☐	Standard percentage of illustrations that show people of a particular culture.	☐ 40 - 69%
less than 20%	☐	Inadequate percentage of illustrations that show people of a particular culture.	☐ less than 40%

NOTE: As reading and language arts teachers involved in this process of analyzing illustrations, you may set your own criterion as to what may constitute an adequate percentage of illustrations of people if a particular culture. The important factor is to consider the specific group of people in a particular culture under analysis.

*Source: Adapted from Lewis, F. (1977) Selecting Children's Books From a Black Perspective, Far West Laboratory for Education Research and Development, San Francisco, California.

The process of determining whether illustrations or pictures reflect an adequate percentage of people of a particular culture in books is resolved therefore through Technique 1. Final

determination of using a book is not completed yet. It is important to determine whether people of a particular culture depicted in illustrations are shown as central characters or non-central characters. (Lewis, 1975, pp. 33-34). The procedures suggested by Lewis (1975) to determine whether people of a particular culture are portrayed as central or non-central characters in illustration or pictures, is accomplished through Technique 2. (Figure 2) The following steps should be followed.*

A. Classify each of the illustrations which include people of the particular culture as either showing them as central characters or showing them as non-central characters. This classification should be reflected in a specific form (Figure 2 - Technique 2: Checklist of People of Particular Culture: Central and Non-central Characters.) To assist you in Technique 2, the following definitions are given.
   1. Central Characters: The central characters are people in the picture whom you notice first, who are usually in a central or prominent position, and who frequently are in active rather than passive postures, More than one person in an illustration may be classified as a central character. If illustrations show an interaction of people, such as conversation, both of the people involved in the conversation may be considered as central characters.
   2. Non-Central Characters: All persons in the picture who are not central characters will be considered non-central characters. They may be listeners or observers of people talking to each other or plain people on the background of the illustrations.

B. The following specific guidelines for classification of character portrayal should be considered in determining central and non-central characters in illustrations:
   1. If two or more people are interacting with each other and if their interaction is the main feature of the illustration, all characters involved in the interaction are classified as central characters.
   2. If other people are in the background observing the interaction of the main characters, these observers are classified as non-central characters.

3. If all characters in the illustration are engaged in the same activity, without any characters being more distinctive than others, the characters all share equal status. Classify them all as central characters.
4. If there is only one person portrayed in the illustration, this person is a central character.
5. If people of a particular culture are shown both in a central and non-central role, check both columns in Figure 2.

Fig. 2

TECHNIQUE 2:
Checklist of People of Particular Culture:
Central and Non-central characters.

Illustration Picture No.	Page No.	Central Character	Non-Central Character
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
9			
10			
11			
12			
13			
14			
15			
16			
17			
18			
19			
20			
21			
22			
23			

*SOURCE: Adapted from Lewis, F., (1977) Selecting Children's Books with a Black Perspective, Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, California. Reprinted by permission.

NOTE: This form may be expanded to list as many pages as needed for the number of illustrations or pictures.

To complete Technique 1 (Lewis, 1977) gives the following instructions to be followed to determine if there is an adequate percentage of illustrations showing people of a particular culture as central characters:

1. Look up the total number of pictures showing people of the particular culture (Item II in Figure I, Technique 1).
2. Divide the number of illustrations that show people of a particular culture as central characters (Total in column 3 in Figure II,Tehcnique 2) by the total number of illustrations from Item 1.
3. Obtain percentage by multiplying the quotient by 100. (Results in 1 and 2).
4. Check the box that corresponds to your answer:

|___| 50 - 100%
Excellent percentage of illustrations that show people of the particular culture as key figures.

|___| 20 - 50%
Standard percentage of illustrations that show people of the particular culture as key figures.

|___| Less than 20%
Inadequate percentage of illustrations that show people of the particular culture as key figures.

Source: Adapted from Lewis, F., (1977). Selecting Children's Books With a Black Perspective. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, California. Reprinted by permission.

The third technique is more complicated compared to Techniques 1 and 2. The analysis of physical features in an illustration or pictures requires some judgment. (Lewis, 1975, p. 42). It is, therefore, important that reading and language arts teachers involved in this process are knowledgeable of the features of people of a particular culture they are analyzing in the illustrations. Answers to the following questions in Technique 3 will serve as guidelines to determine if the illustrations reflect the real physical features of the people of a particular culture.*

1. Does the complexion color of the character(s) have warmth and liveliness--rather than appearing dull?
2. Do the characters of the particular culture display more than one skin hue?
3. Are the facial features (nose, mouth, etc.) of the characters representative of the appearance of some people in the particular culture?
4. Are the hair coloring, texture, and styles representative of some people in the particular culture?
5. Are the facial and bodily expressions of the characters compatible with the story situation?
6. Are the illustrations overly exaggerated that may cause a child to be embarrassed or a child from a different culture to laugh because of their demeaning nature?

Fig. 3

TECHNIQUE 3
Realistic Representation of Features of People of a Particular Culture

The following criteria may be used to determine if the illustrations reflect a realistic representation of the features of people of a particular culture. Complete this after answering or checking the above listed six questions.

Check the appropriate box:

☐	Good representation of features of people of a particular culture.	☐	If Items 1-5 are all checked or answered yes.
☐	Adequate representation of features of people of a particular culture.	☐	If 3 of the Items were checked or answered yes.
☐	Inadequate representation of features of people of a particular culture.	☐	If Item 6 is checked or answered yes.

*Source: Adapted from Lewis, F., (1977). Selecting Children's Books With a Black Perspective. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and development, San Francisco, California. Reprinted by permission.

Figure 4 provides a summary of information based on Techniques 1, 2, and 3. This information provides ratings for the book selection process and analysis of illustrations using Techniques 1, 2, and 3 described earlier. It is through this summary sheet that a final decision in adapting a textbook or resource materials will be based to insure that concepts of multiculturalism are reflected in this area of educational setting.

Fig. 4

SUMMARY SHEET*

Book Title: _____ **Author:** _____

Publisher: _____ **Date:** _____ **Location:** _____

Instructions: Use the results of the information on Technique 1, 2, and 3. Reflect your scores in the appropriate boxes.

PROCEDURE	AREA SCORE	CHECK APPROPRIATE BOX		POINTS BOOK RECEIVED
Technique I	Illustrations Showing People of the Particular Culture	Excellent	☐ = 10	
		Standard	☐ = 5	
		Inadequate	☐ = 0	_____
Technique I	Illustrations Showing People of Particular Culture in Central Positions	Excellent	☐ = 10	
		Standard	☐ = 5	
		Inadequate	☐ = 0	_____
Technique II	Illustrations Reflect Physical Appearance of People of the Particular Culture Realistically	Good	☐ = 10	
		Standard	☐ = 5	
		Inadequate	☐ = 0	_____

TOTAL SCORE _____

Point Range	Book Rating
24 - 30 =	Excellent ☐
15 - 22 =	Standard ☐
0 - 14 =	Inadequate ☐

NOTE: If illustrations in the books are stereotyping, it is highly recommended to reject the book.

*Source: Adapted from Lewis, F., (1977) Selecting Children's Books from a Black Perspective. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development. San Francisco, California. Reprinted by permission.

TEACHER BEHAVIOR

Teachers are the best agents in disseminating ideas and concepts and other significant information in an educational setting. They set examples through their verbal and non-verbal behavior as reflection of their knowledge of multiculturalism. They are strong forces to assist students in their quest for knowledge, in their pursuit of specific academic skills, and in their desire to lead a full, happy life in a community composed of people coming from diverse cultural backgrounds.

Teachers also have the responsibility in achieving the goals of multicultural education, which in general is to prepare culturally literate citizens. Gollnick and Chinn, (1983) state that in preparing culturally literate citizenry, teachers have specific roles in helping students develop:

> ...good self-concept and self-understanding; sensitivity to and understanding of others; ability to perceive and understand multiple sometimes conflicting cultural and natural interpretations of and perspectives on events, values, and behaviors; ability to make decisions and effective actions based on multicultural analysis and synthesis; and pride in self and respect for all people. (p. 30).

Teachers are super forces in an educational setting and can be so instrumental in achieving the goals of multicultural education. Through their daily contact with students, administrators, colleagues, and other staff members, teachers' positive behavior toward achieving cross-cultural functioning and multiculturalism is of utmost importance.

I have shared with you in this paper the WHAT, WHY, and HOW of multicultural education. It is hoped that not only reading and language arts educators will work toward achieving cross-cultural functioning and multiculturalism but everyone of us in all walks of life.

In closing, I would like to quote Elsie J. Smith:

> Each individual is --
> like all other people
> like some other people, and
> like no other person.

Elsie J. Smith (1981) in Heward, W. and Orlansky, M., Exceptional Children, Third Edition, 1988 (p. 454).

I wish each of you good luck in your professional pursuits in the field of reading and language arts. I am very confident that the goals of multicultural education could be achieved. Each one of you would be instrumental in this professional endeavor. Through you and in your work towards preparation of teachers of reading and language arts, we will achieve that state of people who can live comfortably with people who are different--the state of multiculturalism.

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The Developmental Growth of Meaning Vocabulary as Measured by Tests of Listening and Reading Vocabulary

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Although considerable research has been conducted into vocabulary knowledge during the elementary grades, there is little agreement as to the size or growth of meaning vocabulary in children. The purpose of this study was to examine the developmental growth of vocabulary as assessed by a test presented both as a listening and a reading measure.

Through the years, vocabulary knowledge has been considered a major factor in reading comprehension. In addition, vocabulary is assumed to be closely related to general intelligence and is one of the consistent factors measured by intelligence tests. One test, The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, uses oral vocabulary as the one main factor in producing a score similar to an intelligence quotient.

A second purpose of this study was to examine the regularity in growth of both listening and reading vocabulary. If the growth pattern of both seemed consistent, then the listening vocabulary test might be developed into a measure that could predict reading vocabulary in normal achievers as well as reading potential for poorer readers.

The use of an oral vocabulary test to predict reading potential is not a new concept. The Gates-McKillop Diagnostic Tests contains a supplementary test that attempts to do this. However, that measure has very few test items and includes little standardization data.

Methods

The test of listening and reading vocabulary used in this study was constructed using the "Thorndike Twenty Thousand Word List." The fifty item test contained stem words that increased in difficulty from the first one thousand words through the ninth. All of the four choices as a synonym were rated at or below the stem item.

Each stem item was presented in a partial context to aid in identifying its usage. For example, the child was told: "little means ...., or "to run means to ...., or "a bruise is an ...."

A convenient sample of 239 elementary children was chosen. This sample contained two classes at each of

the six elementary grades in a moderately affluent suburban school. The tests were administered by the classroom teachers. All testing was completed within a three week period in April, 1986.

Tests were scored by the principal examiner and the scores were treated by use of the "Stats Plus" statistical package used with the "Apple IIE Computer."

Results

To determine whether the constructed test was a reliable measure, a coefficient of correlation was calculated on the odd-even test items. The results of this correlation are presented in Table 1.

Table I

Odd-Even Correlation of Oral Vocabulary Test

Items	N	Mean	S. D.	Corr.
Odd	239	14.69	3.67	
Even	239	14.04	4.07	0.528

Spearman-Brown Prophesy Formula

$$\frac{2\ (0.528)}{1\ +\ 0.528} = \frac{1.056}{1.528} = 0.691$$

As can be noted from Table I, the mean scores and standard deviations for the two half tests were regular and consistent. The coefficient of correlation of 0.528 between the children's scores on the odd and even items is moderately high. In addition, Table 1 reports the result of the use of the "Spearman-Brorn Prophesy Formula," which can be used to estimate the coefficient of correlation had the two 25 item half tests contained 50 items. As can be observed, the corrected coefficient of correlation of 0.691 is high enough so that the test of listening vocabulary can be considered a reliable measure.

The mean scores of the children by grade levels on both the listening and reading tests are presented in Table II. A graphic look at this data is also shown in Figure 1.

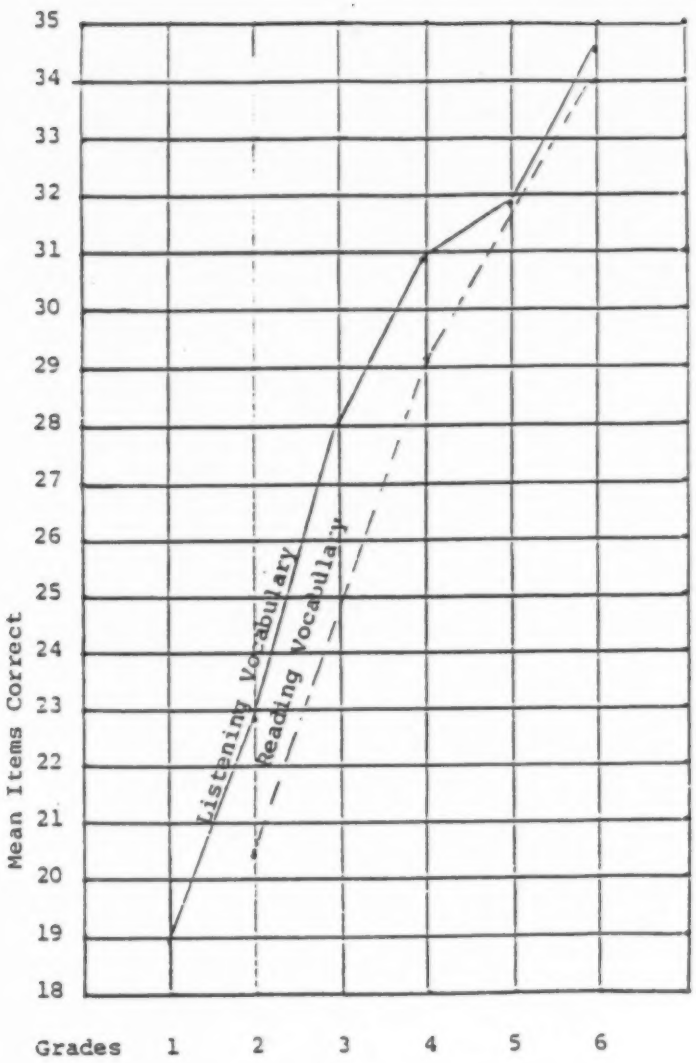

Figure 1. Developmental Growth of Listening and Reading Vocabulary by Grade Levels.

Table II

Oral and Written Mean Scores by Grade Level

Grade	N	Oral	Silent
1	41	19.0	
2	41	22.8	20.5
3	45	28.1	
4	35	30.9	29.1
5	37	31.8	
6	40	34.6	34.0

As can be noted in Figure 1 and Table II, the mean scores for the children seem to progress regularly, grade by grade, on both the listening and reading tests. While there is more than a 2 items correct difference between the listening and reading scores at second grade, this difference reduces to only about one-half by the sixth grade.

Table III

Comparison of Oral and Written Tests

	Grade 2		Grade 4		Grade 6	
Results	N	%	N	%	N	%
Oral High	25	61	20	57	15	38
Silent High	15	37	11	31	18	45
Scored Same	1	2	4	12	7	17
Total	41	100	35	100	40	100

Table III contains the comparison between the scores on the listening test and the reading test at Second, Fourth, and Sixth grades. As can be noted, at the second grade, 25 of 41 or 61 percent scored higher on the test of listening. At fourth grade, 20 of 35 scored higher on the listening test. However, by the sixth grade, 18 of 45 or 45 percent of the children scored higher on the reading test.

Discussion

The test of listening vocabulary appeared to be a moderately reliable measure. Growth in both listening and reading vocabulary appeared regular and consistent through the six elementary grades. It appeared that listening vocabulary was superior to reading vocabulary only through the fourth grade. This is consistent with other studies which indicate that reading vocabulary and comprehension seem to surpass listening vocabulary and comprehension near the end of the elementary grades.

Since the test of listening vocabulary seemed to provide worthwhile measurement, this study should probably be repeated with much larger samples in order to gather normative data. A test of listening vocabulary that could provide an estimate of reading potential for poor readers would be a useful tool.

LITERARY GAPS INVITE CREATIVE INTERACTION

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Children's rich experiences in life and reading adventures hold them in good stead when they confront today's literature. By reading the offerings of contemporary writers of modern fantasy, one can especially sense some of the best and most thought-provoking creators of fanciful writing.

These writers of picture story narrative often omit detailed bits and pieces of storyline and dialogue. Their nature is often implied and concealed rather than made explicit and revealed. This is not to suggest that there exists unconnected story fragments. The narrative is held and joined together in a cohesive and meaningful manner by the children's creative thinking efforts which supply the unknown details.

Literary gaps are identified by Wolfgang Iser (1974) as "vacant pages" which invite the reader to reflect and enter into the text forming connections and conceptions and so creating the configurative meaning of what is being read. The reader can reflect, and through reflection create the motivation through which one can experience the text as a reality.

Children's reaction to stories functions as an archive of their past experiences. Arthur Applebee (1979) identified three categories to distinguish children's types of interactions with stories:

1) the complexity of literary and personal experiences
2) a mastery of techniques and conventions of literary forms
3) the relationship between the experience of the work and the reader's own life.

To determine the types of interaction of children to modern fantasy, a picture story book, Louis the Fish (Yorinks, 1980) was read to children in grades 1, 4, and 6. Their re-writing of the story was then requested to fill in the literary blanks. It was assumed that the most imaginative stories would result in the most creative writing as Chukovski (1963) stated strengthening, enriching and directing children's thinking and emotional responses...".

The following are examples of children's creative efforts at filling in the narrative blanks to Louis the Fish.

Grade 1: (underlined portions indicate children's creative gap filling).

Once there was a boy named Louis. His Dad was a butcher. His Dad wanted him to be a butcher. But Louis did not like meat. When he was 20 his Mom and Dad died in a car accident. And he took over the butcher shop. And one day he was a fish! And one day Al found him in a train. He was a big fish, too big to eat. And Al had found out that an old witch had put a spell on Louis. That old witch was never seen again. And one day a pretty queen came and she took the spell off Louis and he was a boy again. And Louis and Al were happy.

It is apparent in this rewriting that the first grader was drawing upon personal knowledge of how deaths occur in real life and an age when one starts out on the path of adult life. The richness of a literary background is quite obvious when the motifs of witches and spell-breaking queens are incorporated into the narrative. Although in Yorink's original story, Louis does not turn into a boy again, this re-written version reflects a six-year-old child's relationship of life to the story when the happiest ending reflects one's own vision of childhood.

Grade 4: (underlined portion indicates child's creative gap filling).

One morning Louis had the urge for fish. He never really liked fish, but wherever he looked, he saw fish. Then right in front of him he saw a note. It said:

I made you have the
urge, but in a week
or so you will be
a fish.
Signed: X.X.O.

Then Louis asked himself "Who sent this note to me?" Then his mother came in and said "Honey, your dad and I have been talking." "We think you should work in

your dad's butcher shop." "But why do I have to do this?" Because your great great grandfather was a butcher; your great grandpa was a butcher; your grandpa is a butcher, now we want you to be a butcher. So, we want you to work in your dad's butcher shop because some day it will be yours." Louis didn't like this. He had hated meat ever since he was born. He never knew why he hated meat. Louis sighed, and said "All right, when do I start?" "Tomorrow right after school."

The next day Louis's father put him right to work. Father said, "See these fish. They have to be cleaned in 20 minutes." When Louis picked up the first fish it started talking. It said:

Louis, I promised you something. Now is the time for you to meet your real family.

The fish blinked twice and instantly, Louis became a fish. No one has ever seen Louis again, but every year, on the anniversary of the day he disappeared, there is one extra fish, in the butcher shop that no one knows where it came from.

In an almost complete re-write, this student has demonstrated a knowledge of complex story conventions. By starting out the story with a character twist, the writer is giving us a personal touch to the character, Louis. The addition of the poetic notes from the fish indicates a previous exposure to such a literary device. The conversations created follow Iser's theory that dialogue may be created between characters when such is only alluded to in the original story. The maturity of the fourth grader's conclusion shows that this age is willing to accept with some modification, the original coda.

Grade 6: (underlined portions indicate child's creative gap filling).

One day Louis turned into a fish. It all started when he was a little boy. Louis hated meat but loved fish. He got a job cleaning fish tanks at the dentist store. One day his mother said, "Its time for you to quit your job and work in the

butcher shop. "But"..."No buts"..."but, but no." So Louis worked in the shop. One day his mother and dad died of meat poisoning. Louis inherited the shop. Louis thought of fish all the time now. He would sit for hours on end and think and draw fish. He had fishtheria. It got so bad that he saw fish everywhere. He saw super fish in his dreams that rescued him from giant lamb chops and large steaks.

One night he had a real bad dream and every kind of meat you could imagine was there. The head of the meat which was a sirloin steak with a cigar said "Its the last of you kid." And then all of a sudden they started coming closer and no super fish was to be seen and then and there his clothes started turning green and blue and he turned into super fish. Suddenly he awoke. He couldn't move. He was all slimy. He had really turned into a fish. He was late for work. He slimed and got dressed. He stuffed wet wads of toilet paper in his jacket to keep him moist. He got on the bus with only a few problems. Then the police arrested him and threw him in a tank in the pet shop. A lot of people came to see him but never bought cause every time they got too close they would see a giant lamb chop come at them.

This student's re-write, as does the 4th grader's, begins the story where it is more personally meaningful and filled with dramatic conflict. The use of the "flashback" quickly provides the necessary background information. The cause of the parents' death provides some comic relief as a new inventive word for a malady is clearly retribution in the mind of a 12 year-old child. Transitions from one episode to another are provided with logical reasoning. Even the conclusion is built to guarantee the future existence of the protagonist.

These examples of children's writing strongly support the literary theories of Iser and Applebee. Children draw upon their experiences with literature and life to interact dynamically with the author's works. The best of modern fantasy may elicit the

best in children's creative thinking and writing. Northrup Frye (1984) states that the teaching of writing is inseparably a part of the teaching of reading and that the place of literature is to provide the verbal element in the training of the imagination. "The imagination is not a self-indulgent, ornamental, or escapist faculty; it is the constructive power of the mind."

The following steps are suggested when teachers may want to connect reading and writing to produce the ultimate in creative imaginative responses:

* Select reading fare that is rich in characterization, plot development, and that offers children something of value to consider.
* Select reading fare that can be read aloud to a group of children or that an individual would want to read independently.
* Prepare children with the forewarning that certain gaps exist in the best of literature and that their involvement will fill the gaps to provide a sense of reality to the story.
* After the actual reading (preferably aloud for initial experiences) elicit questions that concern themselves with the blanks that children may want to fill (do not allow oral responses if writing is the goal), i.e., "What more would you like to know?"
* Provide plenty of time for rewriting the narrative and encourage editing for the older students to polish their creations.
* Final student creations may be made available for others to read.

To provide teachers with the materials to induce the "constructive powers of the mind," the following book list is suggested for children age 6 through 12:

Children's Booklist for
"Filling in the Fantasy Blanks"

Bodecker, N.M. (1981). The Lost String Quartet. New York: Atheneum.

Bunting, Eve. (1984). The Man Who Could Call Down Owls. New York: Macmillan.

Cole, Brock. (1984). The Winter Wren. New York: Farrar-Straus-Girous. (literary tale).

Drescher, Henrik. (1982). The Strange Appearance of Howard Cranebill, Jr. New York: Lothrup, Lee & Shepard.

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Fleischman, Paul. (1979). The Birthday Tree. Illus. by Marcia Sewall. New York: Harper & Row.

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_____. It Happened in Pinsk. Illus. by Richard Egielski. New York: Farrar, Straus, Grioux.
_____. Sid and Sol. Illus. by Richard Egielski. New York: Farrar, Straus, Grioux.

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LOUIS THE FISH

One day last spring, Louis, a butcher, turned into a fish. Silvery scales. Big lips. A tail. A salmon.

Louis did not lead, before this, an unusual life. His grandfather was a butcher. His father was a butcher. So, Louis was a butcher. He had a small shop on Flatbush. Steady customers. Good meat. He was always friendly, always helpful, a wonderful guy.

But Louis was not a happy man. He hated meat. From the time he was a little boy he was always surrounded by meat. Whenever he would visit his grandfather on Sundays it was always, "Louis, my favorite grandson. What a good boy. Here's a hotdog." On his birthdays his beaming parents would hand him a gift-wrapped salami. When he was thirteen they gave him a turkey.

Louis did anything to get away from meat. He got a job, afternoons, cleaning fish tanks in a doctor's office. Louis loved the job. For hours he'd stare at the fish, their eyes blinking, their fins flapping. But a good thing doesn't last long.

One night at dinner, Louis's mother said to his father: "Nat, why does Louis have to slave over those lousy fish? What's the matter? You can't give him a little job in the store?"

"But, Ma, I like-"

"You're right Rose. Tomorrow, Louis, after school, you come to the store. It's time you learned something about meat."

And that was it. Every day Louis was at his father's shop. "Someday this will all be yours," his father would say.

And it was. His parents died suddenly and Louis took over the butcher shop. For years that's where he worked.

Louis was so unhappy. His only happy times were when he was in the refrigerator. There he'd sit for hours and draw fish. Big ones. Little ones. He'd draw them all over the place. Surrounded by steaks, all Louis thought about was fish. But then it got worse.

He began to see fish everywhere. At home. On the bus. At ball games. Even his customers began to look like fish to him.

Business started to fail. His health declined. He was always thirsty.

At night Louis had trouble sleeping. One night in May, he had bad dreams. He dreamt he was walking down the street and he was attacked. Hamburgers were punching him. Salamis kicked him. Lamb chops, roast beefs, and briskets all

ganged up on him. He yelled for help, but no one came.

That morning Louis woke up feeling cold and wet. He was a fish. A salmon.

Al, from Al's Pet Store, found him on the bus going up Flatbush.

"Look at that face," he tells his customers. "I couldn't eat him, so I brought him to the store."

Louis soon forgot everything about being a butcher, living on Flatbush, or even being a human being at all.

After a hard life, Louis was a happy fish.

Story by Arthur Yorinks. Pictures by Richard Egielski. New York: Farrar, Straus, Giroux, 1980.

A Report of Attitudes of Secondary Education Students Enrolled in a Required Reading in the Content Areas Course

Rita J. Weimer
Kansas State University

Kansas, September, 1985, mandated that prospective secondary teachers take one course in the techniques of teaching reading in order to be certified. One 3-hour course, Reading in the Content Areas, is offered at Kansas State University to fulfill this state requirement.

After teaching this course one semester, visiting with students who were enrolled in the course, and talking with other instructors who were teaching the course or who had taught it in the past, this instructor became particularly interested in finding out how the secondary students viewed this course. It had become apparent that the students entered this course with negative attitudes. The students informed me that some of the hostility is directed at the state of Kansas for "additional requirements" which add on time and money for them. Another reason cited was that the course was an "unknown."

After listening to these comments, this instructor wanted to know if such negative attitudes did in fact exist, and whether taking a three-hour required reading in the content areas course had a positive or negative effect on their attitudes.

Nearly all of the studies on teaching reading skills in content areas that have been reported deal with practicing teachers already in the field (Smith & Otto, 1969; Hudson, 1975). In 1978 Dupusi and Askov found positive changes after a 15-session workshop with junior high teachers on integrating the teaching of reading in content areas. O'Rourke (1980) analyzed the attitudes of junior and senior high teachers and found that teachers who had taken a reading course had significantly more positive attitudes than those who had not had a course.

Welle (1981) concluded that attitude toward teaching reading in content areas had no relationship to the grade attained in the secondary reading methods course. Combining this fact with the differences in attitude among various content majors implies that attitudes are affected primarily by the students' perception of how applicable reading training is in their own area of specialization.

Patberg, Dewitz, and Henning (1984) reported that teachers' attitudes toward content area reading strategies seem a better predictor of what teachers will do in their classrooms than are their planning protocols.

It is apparent from these studies that attitudes play a large part of what the secondary teacher does or doesn't do in his/her classroom as far as integrating reading strategies into daily lessons.

Data Collection

The subjects of this one-semester study were 29 students enrolled in the required course, Reading in the Content Areas, during the spring semester of 1987. All of the students were either juniors or seniors. They represented the major fields of agriculture, modern languages, mathematics, physical education, English, biology, social sciences, and business education. The subjects were taught by this instructor. All were seeking certification.

In order to analyze the problem as objectively as possible, Vaughan: A Scale to Measure Attitudes was used. This instrument is judged to be reliable and valid (Vaughan, 1977). During the first week of instruction, this scale was administered as a pretest. It was administered again as a posttest during the last week of the course. Pre- and posttest data were subjected to a T-test of related means with the level of significance set at .05.

Differences in Attitudes

Attitudes at the end of the course were significantly more positive on item numbers 2, 4, 9, 12, 13, and 15. (See table.) Although the other items were not significant at the .05 level, all did reflect a positive move in improved attitude from the beginning of the semester until the end. Regardless of attitude change, certain items (nos. 3 and 11) reflect that subjects never lost sight of their content areas.

Conclusions and Implications

In this study, taking a required course in reading in the content areas for one semester led to a more positive attitude. If students transfer these pre-teachers' attitudes into effective teaching practices during their student teaching assignment and as they move into the field, more adequate reading preparation for secondary students will be achieved. It would be important to know if these secondary students continue to use reading strategies as they continue teaching in the field. Perhaps a one-semester course may not be sufficient to help students integrate the teaching of reading skills and content area subject matter.

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T-Test of Related Means

Item	Pretest	S.D.	Posttest	S.D.	t	p
1	6.033	0.93	6.33	0.61	1.80	0.08
*2	5.87	1.22	6.50	0.68	2.92	0.007
3	2.17	1.09	2.33	1.12	0.96	0.34
*4	4.87	1.87	5.70	1.44	2.34	0.026
5	5.30	1.69	5.73	1.23	1.51	0.13
6	5.46	0.97	5.80	1.03	1.35	0.19
7	5.57	1.17	6.00	0.79	1.90	0.09
8	5.67	1.02	5.97	1.07	1.43	0.16
*9	5.73	1.25	6.13	0.86	2.05	0.050
10	5.90	1.09	6.27	0.83	1.73	0.09
11	3.33	1.35	3.63	1.38	1.14	0.26
*12	5.70	0.92	6.27	0.79	3.32	0.002
*13	5.17	1.32	5.90	1.06	2.67	0.012
14	5.10	1.61	5.57	1.33	1.29	0.20
*15	5.57	1.14	6.00	0.83	2.09	0.045
Total	77.76	6.45	83.90	6.24	4.30	0.001

*Level of significance = .05.

From Product to Process: Reading Assessment from a Whole Language Perspective

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In recent years a new term has gained popularity in education: Whole Language. Teachers who support this view of education generally have both knowledge and beliefs about language, language learning and the nature of children. Additionally, the attitudes of Whole Language teachers are supportive of language development and growth among their students. Whole Language teachers maintain that children learn best by building on their strengths, not by identifying and isolating their weaknesses, by working from a sense of confidence and competence, not by teaching children what they do not know.

In order to do this, Whole Language teachers must be aware of the development that is occurring in the reading of their students. Yet a contrast is seen between reading diagnosis, which has been characteristic of approaches to reading in the past, and reading assessment, which may be considered characteristic of these teachers. The two approaches represent and reflect differences which exist between more traditional, teacher directed instruction driven by textbooks and skills development and Whole Language, which is child centered and driven by principles of language learning and development.

READING DIAGNOSIS

Reading diagnosis, a term used commonly in the literature of the field, carries with it the underlying premise that something is "wrong." As defined by Harris and Hodges (1981), reading diagnosis is "the act, or result, of identifying disorders from their symptoms." As a result, the diagnostician looks for problems. In conducting a diagnosis, the reading specialist seeks scores from tests or subtests, determines levels of reading performance and identifies problem areas. That is, the focus is on the final product of the reading, the scores resulting from the tests.

When pursuing information, the teacher is guided in the pursuit by questions, questions which lead to the answers being sought. Those questions may be openly asked and answered, in which case the process is fairly clear and easy to follow for all concerned. Frequently, though, the questions are not overtly identified, sometimes leading to ambiguity about what was learned and what should be done. Regardless of which condition is present, the questions to be answered determine the nature and the direction of the diagnosis. The questions are often similar to the following:

> What level of reading material should be used when teaching this child to read?
> How does this child perform in reading in comparison with other children of similar age or grade placement?
> How well does this child comprehend reading material in response to predetermined questions?
> What are this child's skills in word attack, word recognition and comprehension?
> What are the strengths and weaknesses this reader had when reading?

Questions such as these are best answered by tests, since tests yield scores and levels and rankings comparing students. Three types of tests are commonly used in answering these questions: Norm-referenced tests, to determine how the child compares with other children of similar age or grade placement; criterion-referenced tests to determine the specific skill areas which are or are not yet controlled; and informal tests, to determine the independent reading level, the frustration reading level and the instructional reading level for the student (Gillet & Temple, 1986).

In turn, the results of these tests then form the basis for the teacher to develop an instructional program. Reading materials are selected for the student, often by using a basal reading series, which fall within the level of difficulty that was determined as the child's instructional reading level. Typically, the teacher assigns work which accompanies the reading series, even those activities which were not

indicated as weaknesses for the child. In order to make effective use of the materials, the teacher may emphasize those activities which address areas identified as among the child's weaknesses.

In this way, the instructional program for the child, or for a group of children, is determined. It should be noted that the emphasis is on instruction, what is to be taught to or done with the child. Whole Language, in contrast, emphasizes conditions which lead to learning.

READING ASSESSMENT

In contrast to completing a diagnosis, conducting a reading assessment does not mean that the teacher is looking for weaknesses or disorders. Instead, assessment reflects the teacher's efforts to understand how well the child is developing as a reader. The teacher is constantly in the process of assessing the development of the child as a reader. As a result, the questions guiding an assessment from a Whole Language perspective are different from those guiding a diagnosis. The focus is on the how the reader controls the reading process in varying situations or learning contexts.

Depending on the reader's previous development as a reader, the questions are likely to vary from one reader to another, from one setting to another. Yet a core of questions can serve as the basis for selecting which question or questions are appropriate for a given opportunity for assessment:

> What knowledge of the conventions of written language does the child have as a reader?
> How does the child view himself or herself as a reader?
> What would the child like to improve as a reader?
> What does the reader believe reading is? Is it a process of matching letter and sounds? Or is it a process of developing meaning while reading?
> What strategies does the reader think are available when reading?
> Which types of reading situations, if any, does the child approach with a sense of success and confidence?

> How does the reader approach problems when reading?
> What strategies does the reader employ?
> What strengths does the reader bring to reading which can be built on in approaching reading instruction?

The teacher's concerns are not the readability of reading materials, weaknesses the learner may have or the approaches to teaching which should be taken. Difficulty of a text depends on many factors not considered by readability formulae - factors such as interest, prior knowledge, purpose for reading, the situational context in which the reading occurs or the motivation of the reader. Targeting a child's weaknesses as the major thrust of instruction is to be constantly confronting the student with what he/she does not know, a task which can be overwhelming to a student who views himself or herself as a failure at reading already. Teaching is not the major concern for the Whole Language teacher. The teacher's major concern is with the children's learning, learning which may or may not coincide with the "teaching" which may take place. Whereas some models of instruction focus on the teacher, the Whole Language teacher focuses on the learning taking place in the classroom.

This emphasis leads the Whole Language teacher to consider alternate ways of assessing development. Whether it be conducted by a reading specialist or the classroom teacher, the teacher becomes a sensitive, alert "kid watcher" (Goodman, 1978). From the most basic levels of reading development to more advanced levels of development, the teacher watches for reading behaviors as indicators of development:

PRINT AWARENESS TASK: The teacher observes the student dealing with environmental print - such common items as signs, labels, logos. The teacher may directly observe the children's reactions to such items in the classroom, invites the children to contribute print items for a "things we can read" display or constructs a print awareness task (Goodman & Altwerger, 1981). How do the children respond to these items? Simple concepts, such as directionality, can be noted by watching whether the children indicate direction as they point to "where it says." Do they indicate a

left-to-right/top-to-bottom directional movement? Or do they fail to show any pattern of direction consistently, possibly indicating that they have not yet decided on the directional characteristics of print? Do the children respond to one type of print item differently than to another? For example, do the children express sharply stated directions to signs while using informative statements when discussing a label from a food item? What hypotheses about the written language system do children indicate they hold when dealing with environmental print items? One student pointed to a Colgate toothpaste label, pointing letter-by-letter and saying one syllable for each letter pointed to, "COL-GATE-COL-GATE-COL-GATE-COL" and, when running out of letters before finishing the last "colgate," went to some print on the far right hand side of the label, ending there with the final "GATE." It might be fair to conclude the this student has a syllabic hypothesis of written language, one syllable represented by each letter. Children may hold several different hypotheses, or theories, about the written language system before arriving at a theory of reading which is fully functional. Such hypotheses may be part of a child's natural development and movement into reading (Ferrario & Taberosky, 1982).

BOOK HANDLING TASK: The way a student handles or talks about a book can tell the teacher much about the knowledge and understanding of the child. How does the student turn the book to begin reading? Is it right-side-up? Does the student turn to the first page of text? Once again, directionality can be noted - top-to-bottom, left-to-right. When asked to point to where we read, does t.e student point to the text or the picture? While turning from page to page, does the student refer to it as the page or as paper? When asked to point, does the student appropriately identify a word, a letter, an uppercase letter and a period? The possibilities are quite varied. The teacher can observe children as they deal with books available in the room. This is an informal task which the teacher uses to track how the children are developing in their knowledge of books. The Sand - Concepts about Print Test (1972) as discussed in The Early Detection of Reading Difficulty (1986), both by Marie Clay, offer the teacher a published set of materials for sampling

the child's knowledge about books with materials that are specifically developed for that purpose. However, teachers can also use trade books at an appropriate level for the child for gathering such information.

PATTERNED LANGUAGE TASK: This task involves the student in responding to or reading a patterned language book (for a bibliography of such books, see Rhodes, 1981;McClure, 1985). Many of the characteristics of the BOOK HANDLING TASK can also be considered with a PATTERNED LANGUAGE TASK. But beyond those points, this task allows the teacher to determine if the student is able to identify the pattern of the book and to use that knowledge in reading. This task often allows the teacher to identify one type of material where even a student at risk as a young reader can function with a sense of confidence and feeling of success. A book such as Brown Bear, Brown Bear, What do you see? (Martin, 1970) serves as an ideal text for many young readers when using this activity. If the teacher begins reading the book to the child, often the student will begin reading the book before two or three pages have been read.

READING INTERVIEW: This interview contains ten questions which relate to reading but are ambiguous in their meaning (for the text of this interview, see Goodman, Watson and Burke, 1987, pp. 219-220). For example, the first question in the interview is, "When you are reading come to something you don't know, what do you do?" The key word in this question is "something." In responding, the reader must interpret the question and respond in a way that seems appropriate. The reader's response can inform the teacher about what type of problem the student is likely to think can be encountered while reading. It also helps the teacher to understand if the reader thinks of reading as a process which requires sounding out words or developing meaning. By relating the questions to each other and interpreting the responses in light of answers to other responses from the interview, the teacher can gain a fuller understanding of the child's views of reading. The questions throughout allow the teacher to understand what the student believes reading is and how it is accomplished, what makes a good reader and how the student views himself/herself as a reader.

MISCUE ANALYSIS: This analysis allows the teacher to consider how well the student deals with oral reading when reading a connected text. The reader reads a relatively long, complete passage aloud. The oral reading is recorded and subsequently analyzed (for a description of the procedure as it was first presented for use by teachers, see Goodman and Burke, 1972). This questioning procedure considers how effectively the reader utilizes reading strategies and the cuing systems available while reading. It also considers how effectively the reader applies knowledge of language while reading the text. This procedure has been criticized some in large part because it is too time consuming and difficult for teachers to complete. Yet Goodman, Watson and Burke (1987) have presented alternate procedures to the earlier developed questioning procedure, all of which are intended to reduce the time requirement for the teacher. Additionally, Woodley (1987) has presented a software package for conducting a miscue analysis which greatly reduces the time requirements for completing the procedure. These two publications enable the teacher to use miscue analysis as part of an ongoing assessment program in either the classroom or the clinic by making miscue analysis more practical.

SITUATIONAL RESPONSES TO READING: This task involves the student in dealing with a situation which requires adjusting approaches to reading to meet the demands of a particular situation. One example of such a situation would be assigning students to prepare for a multiple-choice test based on one particular chapter or set of readings. The teacher then monitors how the student approaches the task. Does the student prepare for the test day by day, or save the reading for a one night cramming session? Does the student take notes from the readings in order to help focus attention and effort? Does the student identify points in the reading that are likely to be used as test items on a multiple choice exam? Such an approach might not always be possible or appropriate. If that is the case, the teacher can present a series of situations and ask the students to discuss what they would do if they face such a situation. For example, one situation might be similar to this:

> You have a history test, a math test, a biology test and a health test on Friday. For history, you have four chapters to read. For math you need to read and understand four sections of one chapter. For biology you have two detailed chapters to read on the physical structure of vertebrae. In health you have one long chapter with detailed information on communicable diseases common during in the United States. It is Tuesday and you have not read the materials assigned for any of these tests. The biology test and the health test will be multiple choice. The math test will require you to perform computation and complete a series of fill-in-the-blank items. The history test is an essay exam. How would you read the assigned materials? How would you divide your time between the four subjects? Describe what you would do to prepare for the tests on Friday.

While such a situation may not provide an accurate indication of what the student would actually do in such situations, it does inform the teacher of what options the student believes are available and how the student might pick or choose among those options. Also, the teacher can consider whether the student is able to set a clear purpose for reading which meets the specific demands or constraints of the situation. The purposes may vary according to teacher, type of test, control of the subject and past performance in the class.

Such a list of tasks which teachers can use in observing students is not intended to be exhaustive. The particular strengths of the students may dictate completely different tasks or activities. Yet the focus is on trying to understand how the student approaches reading and related activities (e.g., studying).

CONCLUSION

Whole Language is a theoretical perspective which allows both teachers and students to focus on growth and development in language use and language learning rather than on instruction, conformity or a fixed curriculum. When the Whole Language teacher, whether in the classroom, the Chapter 1 reading program or the reading clinic,

assesses development in any language area, the focus in on how the student is developing as a language user and as a language learner.

Such a perspective is not new - many teachers have had such an orientation to language and learning for years. Yet the author of this paper has been dismayed to note the growing power yielded to those who develop and distribute standardized tests. In many places, American education has come to heavily rely on published tests which yield little, if any, information which can be valuable to the teacher in selecting and planning classroom activities. Ultimately, the person who must make decisions regarding student learning is the classroom teacher. Teachers need information on an ongoing basis on which to base decisions about the classroom program.

The approaches to assessment discussed in this paper provide a frame of reference to guide the teacher in observing the students in their classrooms. Such observations provide a meaningful alternative to heavy reliance on standardized tests. These approaches aid the teacher in kid-watching which, in turn, leads to a more effective educational program for all.

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THE LOW READING GROUP: AN INSTRUCTIONAL AND SOCIAL DILEMMA

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Most elementary school teachers--particularly in the primary grades--feel that the range of reading achievement in their classroom demands some form of grouping--at least some of the time--for reading instruction. Even though instructional groups may solve some problems, they may create or contribute to others--some of which may not be generally recognized by teachers and teacher educators.

Two examples of how instructional groups may create unrecognized problems were revealed by Allington. In one study (1980), he found that, partly because teachers treated the low reading group differently than they do other reading groups, pupils in low reading groups read markedly fewer words than did pupils in other reading groups.

In another study (1980a), he found that teachers behaved differently toward oral reading errors made by pupils in the low reading group and those made by pupils in the high reading group. They were more prone to interrupt poor readers who made oral reading errors than they were good readers who made similar errors.

Clearly, teachers may perceive the low reading group--and the pupils in it--more negatively than they do other reading groups and the pupils in them. Rosenthal, in Pygmalion in the Classroom (1968), has indicated that teacher expectation may be a potent influence upon pupil achievement.

If teachers perceive the low reading group negatively, could that perception be unwittingly translated into classroom behaviors that cause teachers to interact more negatively with these children, expect less of them, and thus contribute to their lessened reading achievement?

As a teacher educator, I wanted to know how teachers--particularly student teachers--perceived the low reading group.

Method

Procedures

I constructed a 14-item semantic differential scale using bi-

polar adjectives such as the following that were suggested in the literature or because of responses from student teachers in a pilot study:

Popular	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Unpopular
Diligent	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Lazy
Responsible	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Irresponsible
Organized	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Disorganized

Half of the items were randomly reversed to avoid a response set. The same instrument but with jumbled items was used to measure the respondents' perception of both the high and the low reading groups.

To somewhat mask the intent of the study, the instrument about the high reading group was administered first and then the one about the low reading group.

ANOVA was used to compare the means of the groups.

Subjects

The instruments were administered to two groups of subjects.
Teachers: 112 teachers in Kansas and Minnesota
7 different districts
1-37 years of experience ($\bar{X}$ = 8)

Student teachers: 103 in Kansas and Minnesota
2 teacher education institutions
Pre- and post-student teaching semester

Results

1. Student teachers perceived the low reading group statistically significantly more negatively, both pre- and post-student teaching, than did teachers (DF = 1, 214; F = 7.107; p 0.01).

2. Student teachers perceived the low reading group statistically significantly more negatively than they did the high reading group (DF = 1, 204; F = 2.04; p 0.01).

3. There was no significant difference between the pre-student teaching results and those from the post-student teaching administration, the results being nearly identical ($\bar{X}_{Pre}$ = 4.152; $\bar{X}_{Post}$ = 4.154).

4. There was no statistically significant difference with regard to the high reading group between the teachers and the student teachers ($\bar{X}_{T}$ = 4.00; $\bar{X}_{ST}$ = 3.97).

Conclusion/Discussion

1. There seems to be a real need to sensitize student teachers about their perceptions of the high and low reading groups prior to their student teaching experience. The 15-week student teaching teaching experience made no change in their perceptions. They were just as negative after student teaching as they were before it.

   I intend to modify the original 14-item scale with seven values to an eight- or ten-item one with five values, administer it to student teachers or reading methods students, admonish them about honesty and insight, tally the results, and discuss the results with them the next class period.

2. There is some justification for trying to sensitize individual experienced teachers to their perceptions about the low reading group even though there seems no necessity for doing so as a group. As a group, the teachers were remarkably even-handed in their responses but as many as 15 percent of them consistently rated the low reading group definitely negatively.

3. There seems to be no justification to argue for the abolition of the low reading group in favor of individualized or whole-class instruction. The negative tendences, although definite, were not overwhelming. If a teacher is comfortable with different levels of achievement grouping and--if this organizational structure is producing desired results--it seems unnecessary to change this organizational arrangement.

It is unknown whether these negative perceptions translate into negative interactions with the low reading group but much previous research strongly suggests that it may. Possibly by sensitizing student teachers and teachers to their negative perceptions about the low reading group, we may be able to make some of these negative perceptions more objective and/or positive.

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